


MONEY TALKS
A NUMISMATIC ANTHOLOGY
SELECTED FROM CALCOIN NEWS



California State Numismatic Association



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California State Numismatic Association

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**This Numismatic Anthology is Dedicated to
the Editors, Past and Present of
"CALCOIN NEWS"
Whose Dedication and Devotion to
our Association and Hobby has made it possible**



LEONEL C. PANOSH

Editor

1947-1949

1951-1953



CHARLES V. KAPPEN

Editor

1950-1951

1953-1962



LESLEY G. LODGE

Editor

1962-Date

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California State Numismatic Association

California State Numismatic Association is a state-wide organization dedicated to the promotion of serious Numismatic studies, endeavoring to bring to the collecting fraternity special items of interest and fundamental information. We hope our work will help stimulate the individual study of numismatics from a practical, as well as a historical and economic viewpoint.

In August 1946, Dr. Calvert L. Emmons attended the ANA convention in Davenport, Iowa, and while there resolved that California should be able to support a state numismatic organization. Following his return from the national convention, he discussed the idea with Dr. C. Glenn Curtis and J. R. Stewart. The subject became a topic of conversation during 1946 meetings of the Orange County Coin Club. Drs. Emmons and Curtis favored the state club idea because of their experiences with the state medical society. Dr. Emmons was encouraged to take the lead and a meeting in Fresno was planned for Jan. 12, 1947.

Dr. and Mrs. Curtis and Kenneth W. Lee were the only ones from the south to reach their destination. Stewart Bingham and Dr. Emmons tried but failed because of bad weather. Both ridge route and desert road were closed by snow and neither knew of the Cuyama road from Santa Maria to Bakersfield—the route used by Curtis and Lee.

Although nothing developed from the Fresno meeting, those who were there enthusiastically favored a state association. Talks were made on general plans for the proposed organization and all present pledged assistance. Besides Dr. and Mrs. Curtis and Lee, these included Earl A. Parker, Edward Fogler, Ed Fish, Ralph A. Mitchell, Fred Tinkham, Everett S. Ostrom, Walter Carrithers, Kelsie Jackson, Merrill Cole, Wilbur O. Pauls, Ray Baird Jr., Jess Watts, Gary S. Gleed, Mrs. R. D. Ball, M. W. Gunter, Fred Schaffer, Jack Ward and Ray Baird.

Dr. Emmons wrote to the several coin clubs in California and asked them to send interested individuals to a meeting in Santa Barbara on Feb. 22, 1947 (Washington's Birthday). Present were Dr. C. L. Emmons, Mr. and Mrs. Leonel C. Panosh, J. R. Stewart, Edward Fogler, Roy Hill, Mr. and Mrs. Stewart Bingham, David Redfield, Kenneth W. Lee, Mr. and Mrs. David R. Dinius and G. Meador.

Preliminary actions were taken, Dr. Emmons serving as committee chairman. "California State Numismatic Association" was decided upon as official Association name, and its purpose was determined to be "to promote, extend and protect the interests of numismatic activities throughout the state, and to foster and encourage the study of numismatics in all its forms and branches."

Dr. Emmons appointed Lee, Dinius and Fogler as a nominations committee and the following slate was submitted: President, Dr. C. L. Emmons, Ontario; vice president, David L. Redfield, San Francisco; secretary-treasurer, Leonel C. Panosh, San Diego; and librarian-curator, Stewart J. Bingham, Pomona. The slate was elected and Lee installed the new officers, who represented various sections of the state.

The group at Santa Barbara also decided that the Association should hold a convention in the near future. Lee and Fogler were appointed to draw up by-laws.

The new organization hoped for 50 members in its first year. By October, when the first convention was held, membership had reached 242, a figure far beyond the fondest dreams of its organizers.

Membership numbers were assigned as follows: 1. Dr. Calvert L. Emmons; 2. David L. Redfield; 3. Leonel C. Panosh; 4. Stewart J. Bingham; 5. Edward Fogler; 6. Kenneth W. Lee; 7. Roy Hill; 8. J. R. Stewart; 9. David R. Dinius; 10. Dr. C. Glenn Curtis; 11. Earl A. Parker; 12. Ralph A. Mitchell.

Various meetings were held in the Southern and Northern parts of the state and, through correspondence, all details of the functions of the Association were completed.

On Sept. 3, 1947, President Emmons called a meeting in Los Angeles at the Alexandria Hotel. At that time, plans were made for a fall convention. Ed Fogler, who had just returned from the ANA convention in Buffalo, was requested to survey facilities at Bakersfield, a possible convention site. On Sept. 10, Fogler reported that the Hotel El Tejon was suitable and that chamber of commerce, city officials and police department would gladly cooperate. President Emmons appointed Fogler convention general director and authorized him to make necessary arrangements. Date of the convention was set for Oct. 11-12, 1947.

FIRST CONVENTION

Registration totaled 119 at the Bakersfield convention, and Association membership climbed to 273 by its close, 30 of these being out-of-state members. Fourteen states besides California were represented. California clubs having CSNA membership at the time were Pacific Coast Numismatic Society, California Coin Club, Orange County Coin Club, San Diego Numismatic Society, Bay Cities Coin Club, Hanford Coin Club and San Joaquin Valley Coin Club. Los Angeles led in CSNA memberships with 36. San Francisco and San Diego were tied for second, each having 20 members.

Lewis M. Reagan, ANA general secretary, was speaker at the Saturday banquet and Loyd B. Gettys, ANA president, at the Sunday luncheon. Ralph A. Mitchell was master of ceremonies on both occasions. An all-girl marimba orchestra provided music during the meals.

In the Hurricane Room, nine dealers had bourse spaces. In the arcade next to the banquet hall, 13 members displayed coins. Exhibitors were Harold M. Budd, Gleb Popoff, Roy Hill, Dr. C. L. Emmons, Christian M. Petersen, Charles L. Ruby, Fred E. Draper, Fred Smith, Ralph Mitchell, Clinton Hester, Dr. Bruce L. Wallace, S. M. Koepfel and L. C. Panosh. The glass-covered exhibit cases were not fitted with locks, but there was police protection.

The auction of 386 lots was conducted by Earl A. Parker, San Francisco, and Kenneth W. Lee, Glendale. Sam J. Kabealo, Pasadena, serving as auctioneer. Proceeds of the auction were just under \$2000. There were no mail bids.

Through the efforts of Dr. Emmons, J. R. Stewart and Stewart J. Bingham, 90 glass-covered frames were made (no bottoms). Plate glass was furnished free by Bingham. Stewart purchased the lumber at small cost. Displays were placed on the tables and the frames were then placed over them. Bottoms and locks were added to the frames in time for the second convention, held at Fresno.

Convention officials were Dr. Calvert L. Emmons, general chairman; Loyd B. Gettys, honorary chairman; Edward Fogler, general director; Leonel C. Panosh, finance and registration chairman; J. R. Stewart, registration; Kenneth W. Lee and Earl A. Parker, auctions (S. J. Kabealo was auctioneer); Ralph A. Mitchell, Mr. and Mrs. D. L. Redfield, Miss June Connors, Charles Ruby, D. R. Dinius, Everett S. Ostrom, Fred E. Tinkham, Mrs. Helen Pearson and Adolph Larson Jr., entertainment; and Dr. Bruce L. Wallace, Joe Steele and Roy Hill, displays and bourse.

FRESNO CONVENTION

The second convention was held at Fresno Feb. 21-22, 1948, the Association celebrating its first anniversary there. An imaginary line was drawn at Delano to divide the state, so that one convention would be held in the North and the next in the South, to give everyone a chance to attend at least one state convention a year.

Held at the Hotel Californian, the convention drew 109 registrants, 35 of whom arrived on Friday, the day before the convention opened. There was no convention activity on Friday, just a general informal numismatic get-together. The lounge was a scene of pleasant activity. Groups of collectors set up tables, played cards and renewed friendships begun the fall before in Bakersfield.

All convention activities were held on the mezzanine floor off the lobby. The meeting room was on one side, the banquet hall on another, the exhibit room and dealers' bourse on the third, and a large lounge on the fourth. Bourse and exhibits were set up Saturday morning.

A. Kosoff was speaker at the Saturday banquet; Jack Ogilvie, at the Sunday luncheon. Ralph Mitchell again was master of ceremonies.

Kenneth W. Lee and Earl A. Parker again were auction committee, Sam J. Kabealo calling the bids. The convention official program listed 188 lots. Seventeen exhibits were made by members. Among these was one by Ronnie Lyons, Los Angeles, who was the youngest member at the Bakersfield convention, but who had to give way as youngest member at Fresno to Donald Loftis of South Pasadena.

Committee members other than those named were general chairman, Dr. C. L. Emmons; honorary chairman, Ralph A. Mitchell; general director, Everett S. Ostrom; finance and registration, Leonel C. Panosh and J. R. Stewart; reception committee same as at Bakersfield; entertainment, Mr. and Mrs. Stewart J. Bingham, Mrs. Helen Pearson and Adolph Larson Jr.; displays, Roy Hill; and bourse, A. Kosoff.

FIRST BOARD OF DIRECTORS

All officers were named to second terms and in addition, for the first time, a five-man board of directors was elected, composed of Ralph A. Mitchell, Col. Charles Steele, Everett S. Ostrom, John E. Lenker and J. R. Stewart. Directors were nominated and elected from the floor. Kenneth W. Lee and Ed Fogler, nominations committee, submitted the officer slate. Fogler, then a member of the ANA board of governors, installed officers and directors Sunday morning.

By this convention the number of exhibit cases with locks had grown to 104.

THE ASSOCIATION MAGAZINE

The first CSNA Bulletin appeared in June 1947, when Leonel C. Panosh, then secretary, wrote, "I stuck out my neck and offered to get out this bulletin, so here it is, Volume 1, Number 1. I hope you like it, and if so that you tell me so; but if you don't, I hope you tell me why. If your name is not mentioned or your club is not mentioned, it is because nobody told me." This first Bulletin is now a collector's item and is missing from most bound copies in numismatic libraries.

The second Bulletin appeared in September 1947. These first two numbers were mimeographed on legal-size paper. The format was changed for Vol. 1, No. 3, December 1947. Secretary Panosh commented, "I hope you like the shape of this Bulletin. It was done in this way to make it easier to keep a file of them, which some of you may want to do."

Thereafter, with the lone exception of the January 1949 issue, the Bulletin was mimeographed in the present size of Calcoin News. Volume 2 also consisted of three numbers, dated January, June and August, 1948. Volume 3 was increased to four numbers, January, March, June and October, 1949.

During the business session Nov. 12, 1949, at the San Diego convention, Secretary Panosh stated that pressure of other matters precluded his continuing as Bulletin editor, whereupon A. Kosoff nominated Major Charles V. Kappen, professor of journalism at San Jose State, for magazine editor. Professor Kappen was elected and served half-way through 1962, with the exception of the issues of November 1951 through July 1953, when he re-entered the Army for service in Japan, Formosa and Korea. L. C. Panosh was acting editor during that period.

On April 22, 1956, at the San Jose convention, the office became an elective one, and Professor Kappen was elected editor for a one-year term.

Beginning with the first issue under Editor Kappen, that of January-February 1950, the magazine has been printed. Vol. -4, No. 1, was printed in San Francisco. All subsequent issues rolled from the press of the Globe Printing Co., San Jose, until the magazine was moved to San Francisco in 1962. Professor Kappen felt that the magazine should have a name other than the simple heading, "California State Numismatic Association," which had appeared on the CSNA Bulletin. He named the magazine Calcoin News, short for California Coin News, which he believed to be one of its purposes. The "State Club News, Views and Whos" section was begun in his first issue for that reason. The word "California" was substituted for "State" in the March 1950 issue. Calcoin News as a title appeared first on the cover of the March 1950 magazine.

At the Santa Cruz convention, Dr. C. Glenn Curtis showed slides of famous persons on coins, commenting on each as his portrait appeared on the screen. Editor Kappen asked for Curtis' file of 3 x 5 cards, which he later sent to L. C. Panosh. The series, "Names in History," later "Names in World History," was begun by Acting Editor Panosh in the January, 1952 issue, Darius the Great and Julius Caesar leading the parade of names. Dr. Curtis was joined by Bill Tobitt in January 1955.

Coin articles in most cases have been papers presented at CSNA conventions and at the various local club meetings.

First convention picture to be used in Calcoin News, that of the Long Beach convention, appeared in the January 1951 issue.

Professor Kappen resigned the editorship after publishing the first two issues of 1962. Lesley G. Lodge has been editor since.

William H. Connell and William H. Spence joined the magazine in 1955 as assistant editor for the north and south, respectively. Since then, assistant editors north, have been John E. Ohls, Dorothy Beaulieu, Lesley G. Lodge, Dennis Olswang and Jerry Kroeger. Assistant editors, south, have been Charles M. Johnson, Charles G. Colver, Peggy Borgolte and Nona Moore.

STORY OF OFFICIAL SEAL

The CSNA seal was adopted in October 1950 by officers and directors. Invitations had been extended members to submit ideas for a seal following a board meeting in Brea Jan. 25, 1950.

The seal was drawn by no one person. Charles D. Kiser, president of the First National Bank, Santa Ana, and then vice president of the CSNA, drew it up, using the ideas of several persons. Ideas suggested by Bob Webster of Santa Monica, a youngster who then was a neighbor of Karl Brainard, and by Roy Hill, San Francisco, were incorporated into the seal, ideas being added to theirs by Kiser and others.

The lettering in the circular border and on the map of California is self-explanatory. The clipper ship sailing on the Pacific Ocean represents the early development of this state during Gold Rush days. The staff of the California Republic flag rests at Santa Barbara, where the CSNA was organized Feb. 22, 1947.

MEDAL OF MERIT

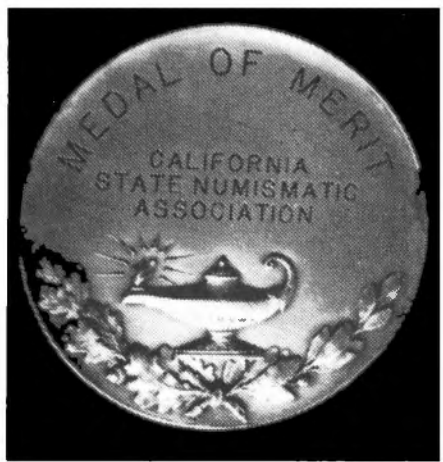
Highest award of the California State Numismatic Association is the Medal of Merit, presented for "outstanding service" to the CSNA, "above and beyond the call of duty."

The 3-inch silver medal has the lamp of knowledge over open wreath at bottom, and above, MEDAL OF MERIT / CALIFORNIA / STATE NUMISMATIC / ASSOCIATION. The recipient's name and the date appear on reverse. The medal is produced by the Medallic Art Co., New York.

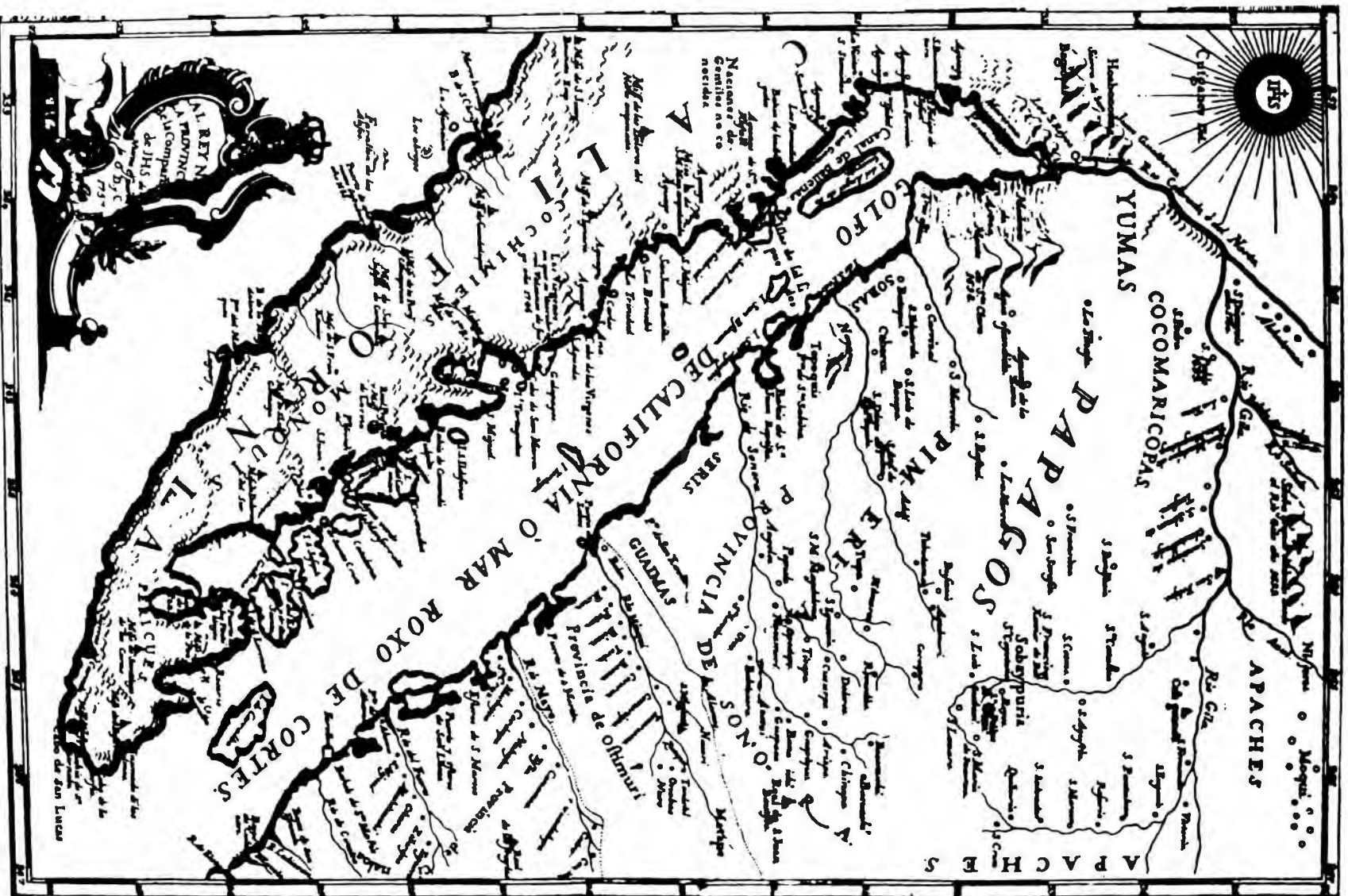
Although a maximum of two medals of merit may be awarded in one year, only 12 presentations have been made by the CSNA Executive Board since the organization was founded 23 years ago. First two presentations were made at the autumn 1956 convention.

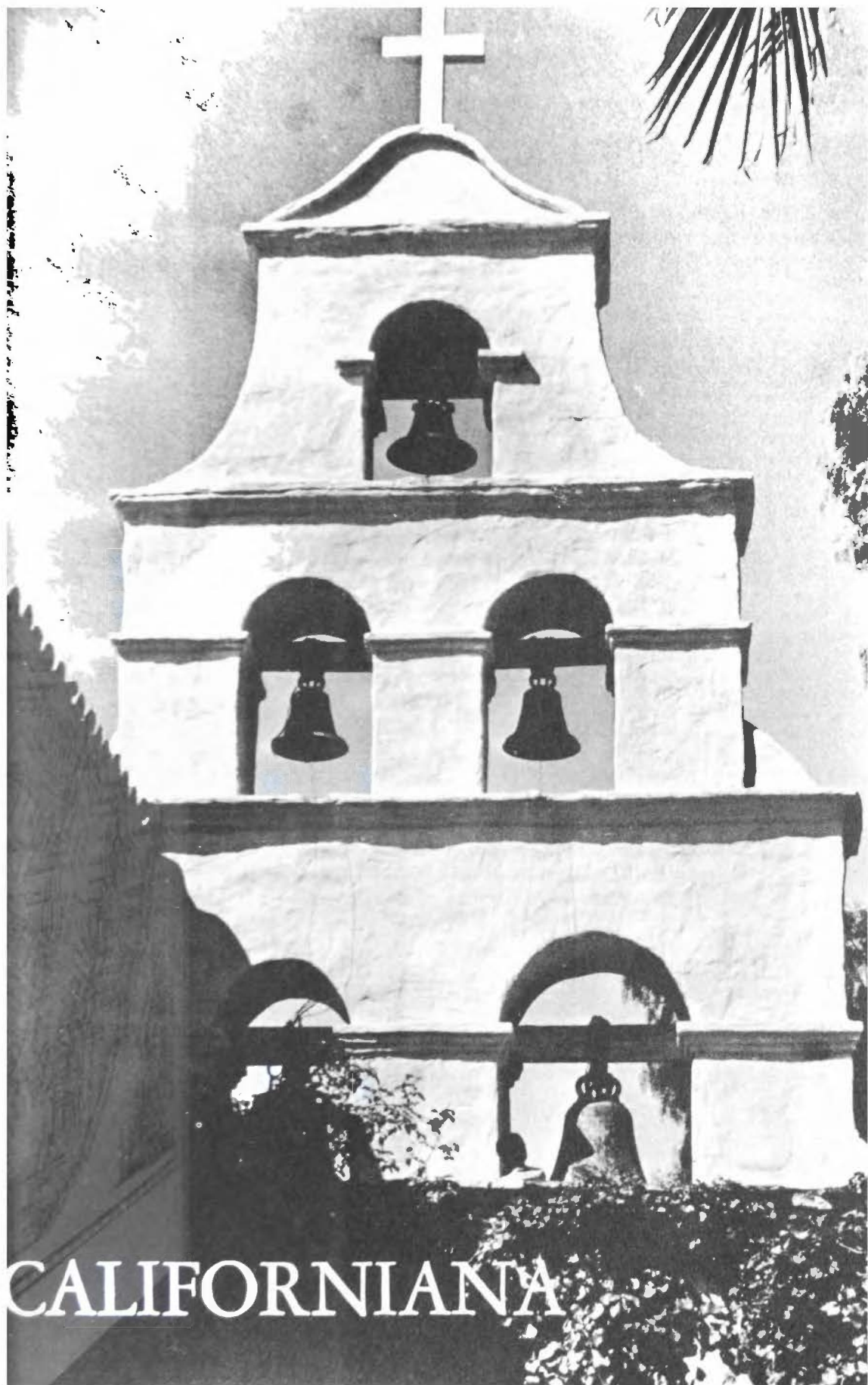
Those honored have been:

Dr. Calvert L. Emmons 1956
Charles V. Kappen 1956
Dr. C. Glenn Curtis 1958
Leonel C. Panosh 1958
T. Kirk Hill 1960
Robert G. McArthur 1961



Erich Werling 1963
Ralph A. Mitchell 1964
Lesley G. Lodge 1966
Charles M. Johnson 1967
Dan Harley 1968
Rudy Gjurovich 1968





CALIFORNIANA

For many people, the idea of California is like the yellow brick road to Oz: it creates pictures of Spanish California with romantic dons and dedicated missionaries; a Mexican California in which contented rancheros reposed in a pastoral Eden; a gold-rush Californian with its roaring forty-niners. Even modern California has its dreams of paradise that continue to make the golden state the most dynamic and to many the most controversial part of our nation.

Numismatics is not a mere reflection of our golden state, but an integral part of it . . . which is shown in coin, medal, currency and every phase of our hobby. California helped create the westward expansion, it helped bind the wounds of our civil war, it helped put our country on a sounder financial basis and today in many respects it has become the center of numismatics for the world.

Californiana will introduce you to some exciting history through numismatics; perhaps our richness in coins will help to weave a little more color into our natural heritage . . . roaming the state from the snowy ramparts of the Sierra Nevada to the scorched stretches of Death Valley, from the splendid harbor of San Francisco or San Diego to the sleepy haciendas of Monterey, from the silent forests of timeless Redwoods to the roaring falls of Yosemite . . . all captured in coin and medal.

History of San Francisco Mint

By ROY HILL, *San Francisco*

San Francisco, in its second century as a commercial center but young as most other large cities reckon their histories, this year celebrates another centennial. The famous San Francisco mint began operations April 3, 1854.

The "S" mint is second only to the U.S. mint at Philadelphia in continuous activity. The U.S. assay office in New York City attains centenarian status in October, 1954.

The celebrated discovery of gold at Coloma (Sutter's Mill) by John Marshall Jan. 24, 1848, gave impetus to the movement of money-hungry gold seekers to California, but this was not the first gold found in the state.

At the Wells Fargo history room in San Francisco is a recently certified copy of a letter from the U.S. mint at Philadelphia written by Edwin H. Dressel, until recently superintendent there, pertaining to a ledger

of "gold bullion deposited 1836-1840", showing an entry from California by Hussey and Mackey Jan. 30, 1838.

By the time news of the fabulous finds at Coloma and other places was made known throughout a country not yet in possession of a rapid communication system, and the trek of the '49ers was on, California in mid-1848 was in need of coin and that need was being noised about.

In Vol. 3, No. 7 of an early newspaper, "The Californian" (Sept. 16, 1848), a resolution was printed reciting the great need and asking for action.

Word of the situation reached the White House where it struck a responsive ear, for President Fillmore, in his first message to Congress (2nd session, 31st Congress) Dec. 2, 1850, recommended that a branch mint be established in California to meet the need there. The House ways and means committee got an estimate for \$250,000 in the first session of the 32nd Congress and a San Francisco firm bid \$876,000.

The California state legislature, in session at Sacramento April 9, 1852, passed a resolution asking that a mint be established in San Francisco. This was signed by Governor John Bigler and was transmitted to Washington via Secretary of State William V. Voorhies. It arrived there June 8, 1852.

By that time a bill already was well under way, and with but few changes in it, was enacted by Congress. This Act of July 3, 1852, authorized a U.S. branch mint in California. The mint was located in San Francisco as the center best suited as a focal point for trade.

This mushrooming city had need of coin, for use of gold dust or nuggets as rough measures of payment was of unequal result. Gold dust was taken in pinches and merchants with large fingers took more gold in a pinch than others.

Tiding over the coin shortage until the mint was ready for production were private gold coins, "slugs", and foreign silver coins of sizes approxi-



The first United States branch mint in California, built in San Francisco in 1853. Located on Commercial St. between Montgomery and Kearny, it operated there April 3, 1854, to November, 1874.

mating our U.S. silver quarter, half dollar and dollar.

California gold was "troublesome" to the U.S. mint at Philadelphia, where it was found to be "loaded" with silver -- argentiferous. Until the first gold shipments from California in 1848, Philadelphia had been used to handling only about \$100,000 a month in gold to be refined, but found itself deluged by \$4,600,000 worth from California alone in December, 1850.

This was only the beginning, for during 1852, gold to the U.S. mint at Philadelphia from California totaled \$53,794,700, while all other sources turned in a paltry \$712,263.

The California gold had more silver in it than was permitted by law to be alloyed with gold for coins. The double problem of quantity, plus need for the extracting of excess silver, may have helped California get its mint so soon.

The original building was on the north side (No. 144) of Commercial St., between Montgomery and Kearny. San Francisco's waterfront changed rapidly near that area in the early '50s as wharfs along which ships were abandoned soon were developed as part of filled-in land. Thus, the waterfront "moved" eastward.

Commercial St. was the land extension to the west of what used to be Central Wharf. The filling in of Central Wharf and its area permitted Commercial St. to lengthen eastward; therefore, what used to be No. 144 is today numbered 608-610 Commercial St., site of the original "S" mint.

The general appropriation bill passed by Congress late in 1852 provided \$300,000 for a mint building in San Francisco. Construction was begun by remodeling and enlarging to 60 square feet the 40 by 60 foot building of Perry and Ward at 144 Commercial St. This firm was successor to Curtis, Perry and Ward, who in turn succeeded the private minting firm of Moffat and Co., which was dissolved Feb. 16, 1852.

The Society of California Pioneers, which shares a permanent headquarters with the California Historical Society at 456 McAllister St., San Francisco, has some interesting original letters by John C. Hewston Jr., describing early mint problems.



ROY HILL, the writer, stands by the plaque at 608-610 Commercial St., which marks the site of the original U.S. branch mint at San Francisco.

These letters they published in their yearly volume for 1952.

Hewston's letters from San Francisco are dated from Nov. 10, 1853, to April 20, 1857. They were written to his close friend and Philadelphia mint colleague, James C. Booth. For 10 years, Hewston was melter and refiner at the Philadelphia mint before being sent to San Francisco by President Pierce to set up the mint.

Hewston told how he arrived in San Francisco 27 days out of New York, via the Isthmus. When he got here, the ship, "Trade Wind", which left New York Aug. 3 via the Horn with machinery for the mint, was not expected to arrive until Dec. 12, or 120 days out of New York. It finally arrived and machinery was unloaded Dec. 12.

His next letter, dated Dec. 30, tells of another ship, "Southern Cross", which was carrying all the window frames, shutters, lead, etc., and was still 145 days out, although it had left New York a day ahead of the "Trade Wind".

Conditions in San Francisco were not too comfortable and communication was very slow. Letters out of San Francisco on the first and sixteenth of each month arrived in New

York about the first and sixteenth of the following month. Letters out of New York on the fifth and twentieth of the month arrived in San Francisco on about the same dates of the next month. A quick reply to New York mail was impossible, for mail to New York had left just ahead of the incoming mail-laden ship.

Cost of living was high. Before Hewston got settled in a boarding house for \$25 to \$30 a week, he was paying out \$8 a day, with washing \$3 a dozen extra.

Remodeling difficulties were encountered. Even the basement turned out to be three feet higher than the six feet planned, for the street level was off that much. Stacks were found to take care of but two of the three boilers, so that another had to be provided.

All that is left today of this historic building are the thick brick basement walls and an original vault. At this vault, Ted Malone aired his radio program, "Between the Bookends" in a salute to Bret Harte about 13 years ago. Harte had worked at the mint 1865-69.

The mint opened its doors for public business April 3, 1854. An account which appeared April 4, 1854, in the "Alta California" newspaper stated that 3206½ ounces of gold dust, estimated to be worth \$57,000, was deposited and that a good part of that was melted and refined.

Oddly enough, no coins were struck on opening day, even as an opening day ceremony or demonstration.

The mint would assay dust and run it into bars or coin it, as depositors desired. Bars issued by the mint bore a government stamp certifying its fineness or value.

Gold was issued by the mint in three forms; as unrefined bars, refined bars or coin. Unrefined bars were those of metal as originally brought in. They merely were assayed to determine the value, for which there was a charge of one-half of one per cent. Refined bars were of pure gold and the charge was six-tenths of one per cent.

California gold in the raw contained much silver, and since mint regulations required that on deposits wherein the silver value was more than \$5, same was to be paid the depositor; he would, however, be

charged the refining fee of six-tenths of one per cent.

It was figured that there was about \$5 in silver in each 156 ounces of California gold, so that on deposits of more than 156 ounces, the foregoing procedure applied. If less than 156 ounces, the depositor got no payment for silver content, as this was retained in lieu of refining fee. For deposits to be coined, there was a charge of one-half of one per cent, added to any refining fee.

Gold was reported found on the Russian River in April, 1854, and a new rush began. Sonoma Creek, to the north of San Francisco, also had gold finds in 1850 and 1851. Other gold discoveries dotted the face of California outside its mother lode area.

The exact day on which the first "S" mint coin was struck isn't related in the "Daily Alta California", although on April 9, 1854, this item appeared:

"THE MINT. — No coining has as yet been done in the mint. All the machinery and arrangement are now in readiness, however, to commence coining in the early part of this week. The coinage of the first few days will probably be much sought for, and many of the pieces kept as remembrances."

Another article on April 14, 1854, reads: "THE MINT.—Up to the 12th, there had been deposited of gold dust at the mint for

COIN	
9350½ ounces	\$168,470.00
UNREFINED BARS	
9177 ounces	165,186.00
REFINED BARS	
67½ ounces	1,206.00

Total for Nine Days

18,604 ounces	\$334,872.00
Daily Average	\$ 37,208.00

Not all of California's gold was kept here following the mint's opening. Three ships which left San Francisco May 1, 1854, carried a gold cargo valued at \$2,466,688.

A May 16, 1854, news item told of the small coinage, limited to \$150,000 a week, as being due to the small amount of silver allowed by the government for refining the gold. A large amount of dust was melted, assayed and run into bars, stamped according to their fineness, and passed in the market at a fraction

of their worth.

These bars were selling at a premium in New York because of the silver they contained. A complete report of mint operations for April was promised by Superintendent Birdsall.

The report of April operations as given to the press and published May 15, 1854, still gives no account as to the date on which the first coins were struck, but the following figures are of interest:

Gold dust deposited, weight before melting	65,705 30/100 ozs.
Gold dust deposited, weight after melting	62,275 72/100 ozs.
Paid to depositors in gold coin	\$ 666,182.68
Paid to depositors in refined bars	1,271.06
Paid to depositors in assayed bars	471,761.76
	<hr/>
	\$1,139,215.50

GOLD COINAGE, APRIL, 1854

Double Eagles, \$20.00	
2855 pieces	\$57,100.00
Single Eagles, \$10.00	
260 pieces	2,600.00
Half Eagles, \$5.00	
268 pieces	1,340.00
Quarter Eagles, \$2.50	
246 pieces	615.00
One Dollar, \$1.00	
703 pieces	703.00
	<hr/>
	\$62,358.00

The above table indicates that all denominations of U.S. gold coins then current, except \$3, were struck at the San Francisco mint during its first month. Which came first and when, is missing information at this time, but may come to light in the future.

A lengthy table of deposits of varying fineness and respective values, ranging from fineness 850 to 973½ (43 deposits of less than 850 fineness being omitted) shows how deposits from different areas varied from \$17.57 to \$20.02, a difference of \$2.45 an ounce.

No note of source of deposit material was made, but when it was realized that such information was important, efforts to record such data were taken.

Meanwhile, depositors who could tell from whence the gold deposit came were asked to inform the mint and get proper payment for same.

The first silver piece and the date of its issue is recorded in the "Daily Alta California" of Feb. 15, 1855:

"NEW COINAGE.—We have seen a new 25c piece coined at the U.S. branch mint in this city from material furnished by melting francs. The coin is a very handsome one and is as beautiful a sample as need be of the most beautiful coinage in the world. The first silver coined in the mint here was for Messrs Barry and Patten."

Coinage of the first \$3 gold piece was reported by the "Daily Alta California" to have taken place Nov. 18, 1855, rather late in the year. Not too many could have been minted. By this time, the mint was receiving more gold than the other four mints at Philadelphia, New Orleans, Dahlonega, and Charlotte, combined.

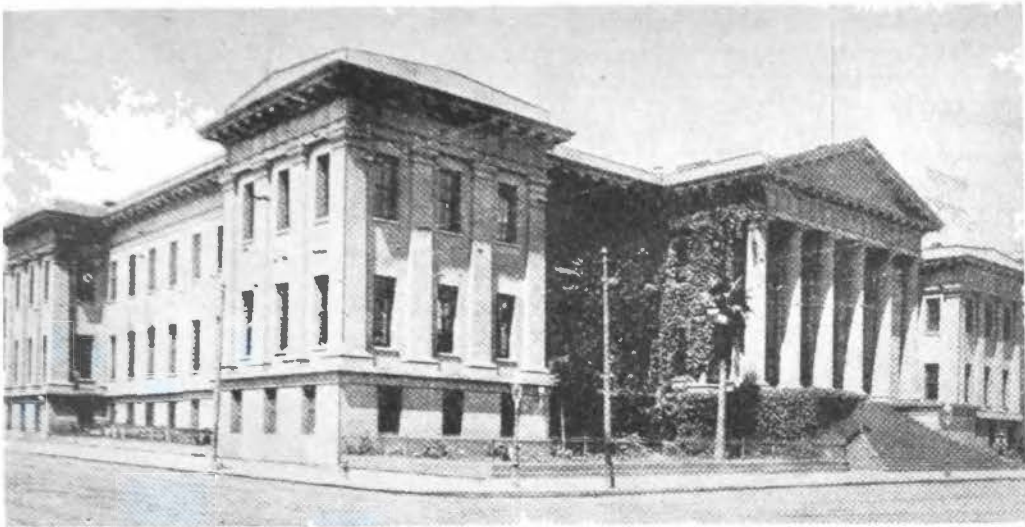
The 10-cent silver piece had its San Francisco beginning in 1856. The other silver denominations came a little later, the dollar in 1859, the half dime in 1863, the trade dollar in 1873, and the 20-cent piece in the one year, 1875, only.

Wars are occasions for patriotic demonstrations. Through donation of an American flag by General Sumner, there was a flag-raising at the mint May 10, 1861, under the personal leadership of Supt. C. H. Hemstead. A shrill whistle at high noon was the signal for action, and after nine rousing cheers, the 60 mint employees (excepting two or three), pulled up the flag. The South had its inning in this Far West city, for the two or three who did not join in the flag-raising were secessionists at heart.

One of California's literary greats, Bret Harte, became a mint employee during Civil War days. He once before had lived in San Francisco, next door to the mint in a hotel owned by a relative.

Francis Bret Harte had been befriended by Thomas Starr King, influential Unitarian minister in San Francisco. The Rev. King introduced him to one of his parishioners, Robert B. Swain, who later was appointed superintendent at the mint.

Swain took a liking to Harte and on May 2, 1863, appointed him a clerk at the mint. Not long after, he was elevated to secretary. Harte devoted his free time to literary pursuits. He founded "The Overland Monthly" July 1, 1868. This popular



SECOND BUILDING of the United States Mint at San Francisco, Mission and Fifth Sts. Begun in April, 1869, the structure was completed and opened to the public in early November, 1874.

Californiana periodical continued publication well into the 20th century.

Another literary great, Mark Twain, Samuel Clemens in real life, was a reporter for the Morning Call at 612 Commercial St., just next door. In 1864 these two made their acquaintance in Harte's office.

The untimely death of Thomas Starr King in March, 1864, left San Francisco stunned. As evidence of the esteem in which he was held, the entire city, including the mint, closed down on the day of his funeral. His grave is to this day in the Unitarian churchyard on Geary St.

With the arrival of a new mint superintendent, Gen. O. H. La Grange, in May, 1869, Harte didn't feel quite at home. In August that year he resigned. Within a year after his resignation, he received an appointment in the Foreign Service, and left for Europe. He had left California, never to return, not even to his family.

The mint history is replete with reports of shortages, some through careless processing of metals and others assertedly through outright robberies or other deliberate means. Much newspaper space was given to the shortages of 1857 in particular. Another newspaper item tells of a shortage on Aug. 12, 1869, of \$18,000 through the Coiner's department.

An example of care in operations and money involved was reported on July 7, 1861, the news story telling how Supt. C. H. Hemstead, whose operations would permit a legal limit wastage of \$235,386 for his four years, 1857-61, showed an actual wastage of only \$4520.35, some \$230,000 less than his legal limit.

The operations by his predecessors from April 3, 1854, until Hemstead took over in 1857, allowed a legal limit wastage of \$207,766.99, whereas they showed a wastage of \$266,312.86, or some \$60,000 more than their limit. By comparison, the U.S. Mint at Philadelphia was showing wastage up to 22 per cent of its legal limit during the time the San Francisco Mint under Hemstead was wasting a mere 2 per cent.

Activity at the U.S. Branch Mint in California was growing and the building at 610 Commercial St. was far too inadequate in room and facilities to keep pace with mint requirements.

The need for more space or a new building brought about a search for a new location as early as 1866. The "Daily Alta California" on Dec. 6, 1866, told of a recommendation to the Secretary of the Treasury by Collector Miller, for the purchase of the 50 Vara lot at the corner of Mission and Fifth Sts., owned by Eugene

Kelly, as a site for a new building.

This recommendation presumably closed further site considerations. Cost of the lot was placed at \$75,000 and it was estimated that the building would cost \$600,000.

It was remarked at the time that "This is a long way from the center of business in the city at the present time but the selection is made with a view to the future growth of the city and the necessity of obtaining a firm foundation."

A special telegraphic report to the "Daily Alta California" Feb. 5, 1867, confirmed the purchase on Feb. 4, but for \$100,000 in coin. Plans for a building 220 feet long by 166 feet wide, to cost \$600,000, were complete and work awaited ceding of jurisdiction by California.

Work got underway in April, 1869, and on May 25, 1870, the cornerstone was laid with great Masonic ceremonies. Into the cornerstone, which newspaper accounts say is in the northeast side, went, among other items of the day, "one each of the coins made at the mint (the "S" mint building on Commercial St.) in 1870." The writer has some original "Flying Studio" photographs of the construction of the mint, 1869-1874.

During the construction period of the second mint building, an important Act was passed by Congress Feb. 12, 1873, whereby the organization of the "S" mint service and coinage was completely revised. Before this Act, the United States had its one main mint, the U.S. Mint at Philadelphia, and other mints were "U.S. Branch Mints" in their respective localities.

This now was changed so that the U.S. branch mints became U.S. mints in their respective localities, equal in responsibilities and accountable not to the U.S. Mint at Philadelphia as in the past, but along with the Philadelphia mint, accountable to the Director of Mints at the Bureau of Mints in Washington, D.C.

This Act became effective April 1, 1873. On that day the United States Branch Mint in California officially took its present identity as the United States Mint at San Francisco. Thus, any coins struck April 1, 1873, or later, are from U.S. Mints, not from branch mints.

This same Act of Feb. 12, 1873, also did us out of our regular silver dollar and for that reason it sometimes is called "The crime of 1873". The mint report for the period ending June 30, 1873, reports no trade dollars yet struck, but later that year nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ -million were made. San Francisco, the gateway to the Orient, whence the coins were intended for purposes of trade to replace the regular silver dollars, which were being "given the treatment", produced huge quantities of trade dollars.

The new building no sooner was opened to the public early in November, 1874, than royalty from the Hawaiian Islands, King Kalakaua I and his entourage, sailed into San Francisco Bay, Nov. 28, 1874.

Upon his visit to the new mint building Dec. 4, he was given a grand tour and he and each member of his party received trade dollars as they came off the press before their very eyes. Comment at the time was to the effect that his little kingdom perhaps never would have its own coinage.

The trade dollar had a special press, the "Ajax", designed for its particular requirements. These presses were said to be worth a dollar a pound, and each weighed 18,000 pounds. This figure is interesting when it is compared to the cost of an ordinary press built in Carson City in 1878 by Virginia and Truckee Shops for \$995. This very same Carson City Mint press may be seen today in operation at the San Francisco Mint, where it was brought and repaired for use some 20 years ago.

The "S" mint was the location for a fine collection of coins which it had on display for approximately 40 years. The collection was that of the Society of California Pioneers and previously had been kept at the organization's headquarters. While visiting in San Francisco, Dr. H. R. Linderman had seen the collection and was so interested in it that he suggested it be housed in more secure quarters. His suggestion led to conferences with O. H. LaGrange, mint superintendent, who arranged for the collection to go on exhibit in the new mint building, where it remained until it was sold.

Apparently the collection contained few important "S" mint coins, for

not many are listed in the mint catalog. However, it does mention an 1804 silver dollar which the late Faran Zerbe described in an article in the August, 1906, issue of *The Numismatist* as "... a counterfeit or fake."

The collection, which had been gathered by a Dr. Charles Spiers during the years since 1814 when he was a boy of 14, remained intact during the 1906 earthquake and fire. It was viewed by ANA delegates to San Francisco in 1915 and later was sold. The buyer realized as much from three coins alone as he had paid for the entire collection. Further details of this collection are available in the *PCNS Bulletin* for September, 1950.

The "Crime of 1873" was corrected in 1878 when silver dollar coinage was resumed. Superintendent H. L. Dodge gave a "coming out party" for the return of the standard silver dollar and invited newspapermen to witness a special minting April 17.

The guest of honor was former Governor F. F. Low. Coiner Olcott, as master of ceremonies, received the first coin, which was struck on a planchet placed in the press by Superintendent Dodge. The die cracked after 1000 coins had been struck and operations ceased. The first 1000 silver dollars were made at the superintendent's own expense. Regular coinage began the following day and continued until a supply of bullion worth \$2½-million was exhausted.

King Kalakaua I returned in 1883 to reverse the casual comment made during his 1874 visit. While on a European tour, he had found mint officials interested in producing coins for Hawaii, but their samples had not gained favor in the Islands. It remained for Claus Spreckles, sugar tycoon, to complete arrangements for coinage based on regular United States coinage content.

Coinage began Nov. 17, 1883, but was not completed until June, 1884. All of these coins bear the likeness of the King and the date 1883 on the obverse side. The three coins of larger value show the royal coat of arms and the value while the one of smallest denomination, the dime, bears the value in a wreath on the reverse side. The San Francisco Mint had been authorized to coin the sum of \$1-million.

It was broken down as follows: Dollar, 500,000 (\$500,000); half-dollar, 700,000 (\$350,000); quarter-dollar, 500,000 (\$125,000); and dime, 250,000 (\$25,000). Later, 455,329 of the silver dollars were melted.

The making of minor coins by other than the U.S. Mint at Philadelphia was not permitted until after passage of a special Act by Congress in 1905. The San Francisco Mint did not produce small cent pieces until three years later in 1908 or the nickel until 1912. Economic factors finally broke through the California reluctance to express values in anything less than quarters.

The survival of the San Francisco Mint, with its contents intact, from the earthquake and fire of 1906, seems a miracle considering that blocks of buildings surrounding it were devastated. It is explained by the fact that a private water supply system for the mint had been completed only three weeks before. Artesian wells in the center court were put into use during the catastrophe under the personal supervision of Superintendent Frank A. Leach.

He and his heroic mint employees reported that pieces of the outside walls broke off with a noise similar to artillery fire and that glass windows, which had not been cracked or broken in the quakes, simply melted in the intense heat. What outward damage was done was quickly repaired and the mint became the financial headquarters for the city, since banks were paralyzed.

Great shipments of gold were sent from San Francisco to Denver in 1908. The San Francisco Mint had not been designed for storage purposes and gold valued at approximately \$270-million and silver worth approximately \$60,000 had accumulated through the years. Leach, who was then director of all mints, contracted with Wells-Fargo Co. to ship the gold to Denver at a cost of approximately \$300,000.

Shipments began Aug. 15, 1908, and were completed by Dec. 31 of that year. The entire amount was moved without loss since the transfer was made as inconspicuously as possible. The gold was carried in horse cars. This undertaking was momentous in its day, although it was topped in 1934 when nearly \$1½-billion was shipped from the Califor-

nia mint to Denver.

The striking of commemorative coins at the San Francisco Mint for the Panama Pacific International Exposition of 1915 was an outstanding event in U.S. coinage because this set contains the only \$50 gold pieces ever made for public release. The first coins were struck with great ceremony on June 15, just 10 days before the founding of the Pacific Coast Numismatic Society.

Many arrangements had to be made for production of the issue, which had been authorized Jan. 15. New designs were executed, special tools and press fittings were made and a medal stamping hydraulic press which weighed 14 tons and had a 450-ton striking power was brought to the coast from Philadelphia.

The coins issued at that time are more fully described in *The Numismatist* of 1915 in the mint report for the fiscal year of 1914 which ended June 30, 1915. The table below was published in the *PCNS Numismatic Bulletin* of June, 1948.



Progress in modern times and obsolescence of the building which had

been in use since 1874, dictated the need for a new building. The third home for the "S" mint was constructed in 1935-37 on Duboce Ave. at Buchanan and Market Sts., high upon a formidable looking rock pile. The cornerstone was laid in 1935 and the building was formally dedicated May 15, 1937.

Although the new structure was supposed to be impregnable, two boys, Paul Francis and William Gallagher, proved it otherwise by entering the building through side windows shortly after it was opened. Thereafter bars were placed on each window and a light was kept burning at night.

Although some hectic days have made up a part of the life of the 100-year-old San Francisco Mint, it has been a great money factory, and for a time boasted of being the largest and finest mint in the world. Many times, its production far exceeded that of any other U.S. mint and the gold and silver it had in storage at one time exceeded that of Philadelphia and Denver combined. However, time and the security needs of the country have altered, so that the vast treasures once housed at San Francisco have been transferred to Denver.

Production at the San Francisco Mint varies according to economic needs and to whether it is making coins for foreign countries as it has



THE UNITED STATES MINT at San Francisco, Duboce Ave. at Buchanan and Market Sts.

done for many years.

This story of the mint is necessarily incomplete in many details. I will conclude by naming the men who have been its superintendent. They are Louis Aiken Birdsall, 1853-55; Peter R. Lott, 1855-56; Robert J. Stevens, 1856-57; C. H. Hemstead, 1857-63; Robert B. Swain, 1863-69; Gen. O. H. LaGrange, 1869-78; H. L. Dodge, 1878-82; E. F. Burton, 1882-

85; I. Lawton, 1885-89; W. H. Diamond, 1889-93; J. Daggett, 1893-97; Frank A. Leach, 1897-1907; E. F. Sweeney, 1907-12; Frank A. Leach, 1912-13; T. W. H. Shanahan, 1913-21; M. J. Kelly, 1921-33; Peter J. Haggerty, 1933-45; Neil H. Callahan, 1945-48; George B. Gillin, 1948-52; John P. McEnery, 1952-53; and Ross P. Buell, 1953.

S.F. Mint Stops Making Coins

The U. S. Mint in San Francisco ceased coining operations March 24. The 1-cent piece, 44,610,000 of which had been turned out in 1955, was the last coin to be struck. The Mint had stopped making 10-cent pieces, only other denomination struck this year, a week before. The dropping of the cent from a coin press at the Mint was an historic event. It brought to a close an operation which had begun April 3, 1854, nearly 101 years ago.

The San Francisco city administration, merchants and others had protested its closing, but to no avail. Following is an exchange of letters between the East Bay Coin Club, Oakland, and the Acting Director of the Mint:

East Bay Coin Club Asks Reconsideration

Jan. 25, 1955

Hon. Geo. M. Humphrey
Secretary of the Treasury,
Washington, D. C.

Dear Sir:

The membership of the East Bay Coin Club, Oakland, Calif., second largest such organization in California, went on record by unanimous vote at its Jan. 14 meeting as vigorously opposed to abandonment of coining operations at the century-old U.S. Mint in San Francisco. It is earnestly hoped that this contemplated action is not beyond reconsideration.

For the following reasons and others too numerous to set forth here, the East Bay Coin Club opposes the cessation of coinage at the mint in San Francisco :

1. The estimated savings—said to approximate \$400,000 annually according to published reports—seem hardly worthy of attainment in terms of the resultant hardship and unemployment affecting long-time government employees, unless parallel cuts are made in multi-million and billion dollar expenditures now undertaken almost daily by the government. How long would \$400,000 service the national debt?

2. With the country's population increasing rapidly year-by-year, it is only a question of time before the coinage facilities at the U.S. Mint in San Francisco will be in requisition again. Where will a trained force be available then if the present crew is scattered to all parts of the country? That the machinery reportedly is going to be "moth-balled" at the mint clearly shows, in our opinion, that this is only a temporary expedient being taken at the expense of the mint employees and the San Francisco Bay area, possibly for some transitory budget reasons.
3. The action is looked upon with disfavor by all California coin collectors and coin clubs and we believe it is not an exaggeration to state that members of the numismatic fraternity throughout the nation share our views. We, in the West, feel that the mint director's action is an affront to the West. We revere our historical institutions just as greatly as, say, Denver or Philadelphia.
4. In view of the recent construction of the Mint building in San Francisco (1937) we feel that abandonment of coining operations so soon afterward, on the grounds that they are uneconomical here, is an admission of poor governmental planning, and that a more vigorous effort to justify coinage should be made rather than the defeatist attitude adopted.
5. Lastly, we believe that a solution might lie in (a) spreading the work load more evenly among the three existing mints so that all may continue to function and (b) the resumption of gold coinage which, we realize, is a serious, basic step which would require an appropriate congressional act.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) **Gilbert D. Eaton, President**
East Bay Coin Club

Acting Mint Director Explains Decision

TREASURY DEPARTMENT
Washington, 25, D.C.
Office of Director of the Mint

Feb. 16, 1955

Mr. G. D. Eaton
President, East Bay Coin Club
P.O. Box 633, Bayshore Station
Oakland 23, California

Dear Mr. Eaton:

I have before me for reply your letter of Jan. 25 addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury, concerning the discontinuance of coinage at the San Francisco Mint. I will attempt, insofar as possible, to answer your questions in the order enumerated in your letter.

Under Item 1 you list the estimated savings of \$400,000 annually as being "hardly worthy of attainment in terms of the resultant hardship and unemployment affecting long-time government employees." The employees involved in this reduction amount to 64 in number, and every effort possible is being made to place these employees elsewhere within other government agencies or in private industry. I do not believe that any great hardships will result to the employees involved by discontinuing coinage at San Francisco. Further, in connection with your Item No. 1, you indicate that the amount saved is small in relation to the national budget. That is true, but it is rather large in relation to the total expenditures of the Mint service. We in the Mint feel that the only way to balance the budget is for each Bureau to do what it can toward reducing the overall expenditure. We do not believe that because the saving is relatively small compared to the total national debt that we should continue an uneconomical and unbusinesslike operation.

Under your discussion enumerated as Item 2, you talk about the population trend on the west coast. In this connection I point out that coins are distributed through the 12 Federal Reserve banks and 24 branches, as well as through the Cashier's Office in the Treasury Department at Washington. Of the 37 outlets for coins only four fall in the San Francisco district, namely, the Federal Reserve banks and branches at Los Angeles, San Francisco, Portland and Seattle. These four banks demand less than 10 per cent of the total coin production of the United States. With such a small demand, it was determined many years ago to be uneconomical to put into operation at San Francisco modern large-scale equipment. If such equipment had been installed at San Francisco it could have produced enough coin in a few days to satisfy the needs of the west coast, and any other production from such equipment would, of necessity, have to be moved to the more heavily populated areas in the East. The shipping of coin is expensive and, therefore, it would have been very unbusinesslike to have increased production at San Francisco. At Denver, where modern equipment has been installed it is possible, for example, to produce one-cent pieces for \$0.75 per thousand, whereas in San Francisco it costs \$1.71 (figures based on actual cost in fiscal year 1954). One-cent pieces represent about 65 per cent of the total production of coins in the United States. To state it another way—Denver can produce one-cent pieces and deliver them to the San Francisco Mint at less cost than the San Francisco Mint can produce them. Although one-cent pieces are the bulk of production, the same cost relationship holds to the other denominations to a certain extent. For example, it costs \$3.39 per thousand to produce five-cent pieces at San Francisco and only \$1.64 to produce the same coins in Denver. For 10-cent, 25-cent and 50-cent pieces, respectively, the cost at San Francisco is \$1.91, \$4.10 and \$6.91 per thousand, whereas in Denver the cost is \$1.29, \$2.81, and \$4.73.

You can see from the above figures that it is more economical and business-like to make coins in Denver and ship them to the west coast. Also, as stated above, the west coast, because of the small demand for coin, does not permit the installation of more efficient equipment in the region.

Under Item 3 of your letter you say that the action is looked upon with disfavor by all California coin collectors and coin clubs, and you state that you believe that members of the numismatic fraternities throughout the nation share your views. I think that you and the numismatic fraternities must agree that the Mint cannot operate an uneconomical institution merely for the sake of collectors. Had this been true, at least four other mints would be in operation in the United States—mints that have been closed in the past. The Mint's major problem is to produce coins for a medium of exchange to circulate the goods of the country. We do recognize that collectors are interested in our product, and for that reason, we produce proof coins at Philadelphia especially for collectors. Also, the Treasurer's Office distributes uncirculated coins because of the collectors' interest.

Also under Item 3 you state that the Mint Director's action is an affront to the West. The decision to discontinue coinage at San Francisco was based solely upon a manufacturing point of view, and I point out that the Mint is a manufacturing operation.

Under Item 4 you mention the construction of the Mint building at San Francisco in 1937, and say this is an admission of poor governmental planning. In the first place, I point out that the Mint was built in San Francisco mainly because of a silver storage problem in addition to the fact that operations in the old building were uneconomical. Savings on operations in the new building with more efficient equipment have more than paid for its existence. It would have been totally impossible to have stored the silver in the old building in the quantity that it is stored in the new. One thing I wish to point out in this connection is the change in monetary habits of the people in the last several years, which was not taken into consideration when San Francisco was constructed. It is this change in monetary habits that has changed the nature of the manufacture of coins, permitting the use of large-scale modern equipment. It is this change which, in effect, has caused the discontinuance of coinage at San Francisco.

Prior to the mid-thirties, not many coins were demanded. Furthermore, the emphasis was on silver coins. With the advent of cash-and-carry merchandising, state sales taxes and Federal excise taxes, the development of coin operated devices, such as vending machines, parking meters, etc., the demand for coins increased tremendously and the character of the demand changed to a point where the demand for one-cent pieces amounted to 65% to 70% of the total demand for coins. Out of this heavy demand and the change in character of demand came the need for large-scale equipment of a brass mill nature adapted primarily for the production of minor coins. The entire conception of coinage equipment changed because of these two factors. As pointed out above, the demand on the west coast did not justify the installation of this kind of equipment in the San Francisco Mint.

Under Item 5 you state that you believe that the solution might lie within spreading the work load more evenly among the three existing Mints or the resumption of gold coinage.

The resumption of gold coinage is a policy matter which I will not attempt to discuss in this letter. You indicate that you realize this by stating it would take a Congressional Act to commence gold coinage. As to spreading the work between the three existing Mints, it means that, in effect, we would, in reducing personnel, continue to make horizontal cuts. All this would do would be to increase cost in two ways: First, it would increase the proportion of overhead cost to be applied, and secondly, it would reduce coinage in our most efficient plant. In this connection, the San Francisco Mint had been reduced to a minimum. Any further reduction there merely would have increased cost. For several years San Francisco has been producing more coins than the west coast could absorb, and it was necessary to ship coins to the East at great expense. For your information there is attached a table which shows the reduction in personnel in the Mint service over the past several years.

By discontinuing the coinage operation at the San Francisco Mint, 64 positions are involved, 44 in coinage and 20 elsewhere. Every effort will be made to find work for the persons occupying these positions. You will note from the table mentioned above that the San Francisco Mint has fared well in the reduction of employees. For example, Philadelphia on June 30, 1945, had 2,608 employees. Today it has 266. San Francisco on the same dates had 424 and 148, respectively. You also will note that Denver since June 30, 1953, has gone from 270 to 197, while San Francisco went from 158 to 148. During the same period Philadelphia went from 317 to 266 employees. I believe these figures also dispel your thoughts in Item 3 relative to the reduction at San Francisco being an affront to the West.

The closing of the San Francisco Mint is not a new idea inasmuch as at Congressional hearings Mint officials have been questioned about the soundness of continuing coinage operations there. To have tried to reduce the personnel further in San Francisco without closing down coinage entirely would have increased cost in comparison to Denver and would have put the Mint in an untenable position as far as justifying continued operations there. The only businesslike decision that could be made on the basis of the facts was the one which we decided upon, namely, closing coinage at San Francisco.

We will continue to receive deposits of gold and silver and to operate the refinery at San Francisco. Out of the 148 employees now working there, 89 will be retained to carry out the above-mentioned functions.

I have written to you in detail because I believe that after you have reviewed the facts involved in our decision to discontinue coinage at San Francisco, you will agree that it was the only businesslike action to take. If there are any additional questions that you desire to ask, I will be glad to answer them upon request.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) Leland Howard
Acting Director of the Mint

Was Augustus Humbert Mintmaster of the First United States Mint in California?

By A. KOSOFF, Encino

(A talk presented at the Friday Night Forum, CSNA Convention, Santa Barbara, November 1963.)

Attracted by a clipping quoting an article in a daily newspaper, *Alta California*, dated Feb. 21, 1851, I determined to dwell on the subject matter, and I quote from the article so that you may be aware of the subject matter. It is obvious that here is a subject worth pursuing for if these are indeed the facts then why is not this assay office considered the first United States mint in California? And if this be true, then it follows that the products of this mint are United States issues rather than private gold coins.

"Hexagonal fifty-dollar gold pieces, manufactured under an act of Congress, appointing a U.S. assay office in California, and made under the supervision of the U.S. assayer, were first issued yesterday. These coins are legal tender, and the coin of the United States government to all intents and purposes. The coin contains upon one face an eagle in the center, around which are the words 'United States of America'. Just over the eagle is stamped '887 thous.', signifying the fineness of the gold, and at the bottom is stamped '50 dolls'. The other face is ornamented with a kind of work, technically called 'engine turning', being a number of radii, extending from a common center, in which is stamped in small figures '50'. Around the edge is stamped the name of 'The United States Assayer'."

May I emphasize a few phrases.

—Manufactured under an Act of Congress.

—Made under the supervision of the United States assayer.

—These coins are legal tender.

—The coin of the United States to all intents and purposes.

It is well to remember that the State of California had, in April 1850, passed a bill creating the office of State Assayer, and Frederick D. Kohler was appointed. At the same time appeals had been made to Congress to open a branch mint in Cali-

fornia, but such an operation took time to plan and to put into execution.

The State assayer did prepare gold ingots and it was submitted that the United States Constitution made it unlawful for any state to issue currency. The office of State Assayer had been functioning less than one year when it was abolished.

Congress, while not able to pass a bill establishing a branch mint, did authorize the appointment of a United States Assayer to supervise the minting operation of Moffat & Co. under a contract to act as assay office and mint.

The term assay office and mint is mine.

—An assay office is a place where gold is received, assayed, smelted and forged into bars.

—A mint is a place where money is manufactured.

The important thing about the manufacture of money by Moffat & Co. is that it was done by authority of the United States government, and that the government stamp was to be placed on the money under supervision of a government appointed official.

When the government contract was secured, Moffat & Co. immediately discontinued its own private coinage, moved to larger quarters and placed the following advertisement in the *Daily Alta California* on Jan. 22, 1851: "United States Assay Office—We give notice that on or about the first of February ensuing, we will be prepared to receive gold dust for melting and assaying, forming same into ingots and bars in accordance with our recent contract with the Secretary of the Treasury, authorized by Act of Congress, approved Sept. 30, 1850. under the supervision of the United States Assayer, Augustus Humbert, Esq., who will cause the United States stamp to be affixed to same. Due notice will be given of the removal of Moffat & Co. United States Assayer's office to Montgomery St."

That the \$50 gold piece was taken to be an official coin is endorsed by two newspaper articles, the first appeared in the San Francisco Prices Current in February 1851, stating: "The above cut represents the observe of the United States ingot, or rather, coin, of the value of \$50 ——" The Daily Alta California of Feb. 21, 1851 had this to say: "The new \$50 gold piece, manufactured under the Act of Congress, appointed a United States assay office in California and made under the supervision of the United States Assayer, was issued by Moffat & Co. yesterday. About 300 of these pieces have been struck off ——. These coins are, of course, a legal tender and are the coins of the United States — to all intents and purposes —."

Bankers agreed to accept the \$50 pieces at their face value and the custom house officials accepted it in payment of merchandise and duties. Eminent attorneys and public officials had given their unqualified opinion that these coins were legal tender, that they bore the stamp of the government, and like other U.S. coinage were really issued by an Act of Congress.

However, history relates many tales of lack of harmony between agencies of a government. In Washington there appeared to be just such a lack of harmony between the Director of the Mint and the United States Assayer. The Director stated that, while it was true the Assayer had been authorized by Congress to place the government stamp on the gold, this did not make such pieces legal tender. One might well ask: "In what way did the government stamp which was placed on the metal under the supervision of the Mint Director, also an appointee by Congressional authority, differ from that placed on the metal by the United States Assayer to justify such a statement. Apparently, however, the various agencies took it upon themselves to make certain rulings.

It is the writer's contention that the Mint Director over-stepped his authority.

However, a ruling by the Acting Secretary of the Treasury is of significance and, undoubtedly, was made under proper authority. This ruling rejected a request by Moffat & Co. to strike coins of less than \$50 value. The positive position has now been

made that Moffat & Co. was responsible to the Treasury Department and took its orders directly from the Secretary of the Treasury. Thus the U.S. assay office's position was exactly that of the Mint Director, and not subordinate to it. Such a position would fix the assay office even a notch above a branch mint which would be getting its orders from the parent mint director. The assay office got its authority from Congress and was subject to the supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury.

The statement of the Mint Director may well be interpreted as springing from a fear of loss of prestige and division of authority to mint coins. This is a human failing which prejudices opinion but does not alter facts.

Some confusion arose around the Moffat & Co. products so that no clear cut line of demarcation is possible, except insofar as the \$50 gold pieces are concerned. The \$50 gold piece, bearing the name of Augustus Humbert, may justifiably be called a regular United States issue.

Even here there remains the question of the legality of an 887/1000ths fineness when a 900/1000ths fineness was prescribed by law.

Under pressure by many influential citizens who demanded smaller denominational coins, Moffat & Co. reluctantly, and after much delay, consented to strike \$10 and \$20 pieces without permission from the Treasury Department. Only one month after this issue began, permission was received from the Treasury Department to continue the striking and new issues were designed, very similar to those issued without authority.

Whether this belated approval gives substance to a claim that the earlier strikings were legal or not, the later issues are not beclouded by any such uncertainty.

Does this mean a happy ending? Not in the least!

The Custom Office which had gladly accepted the \$50 gold piece, now refused the United States assay office issues.

Embarrassment and chaos resulted; the demand for the establishment of a branch mint became stronger and finally the request was granted. On April 15, 1854, \$20 gold pieces were struck in San Francisco. The building and machinery for the branch mint

were furnished by Messrs. Curtis and Perry who had taken over the assay office operation.

The United States assay office was intended as a temporary institution and the establishment of a branch mint made its further existence unnecessary. While it operated, however, it performed the functions of a mint, with the same authority and supervision of a mint.

If we are to call a spade a spade, then, it is respectfully but firmly submitted, let us call a mint a mint.

Most of the mintage of Moffat & Co. belongs to the regular United States coinage. This would make of the \$50 gold piece a type coin, much to be desired by the many thousands of type collectors who will welcome so romantic an addition to a series which otherwise features a "sameness" with only one major change per denomination. The new addition will be like a transfusion, adding life and spirit to the type collection of United States gold coins.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF

George Albrecht Ferdinand Kuner

Reprinted by special permission of The Society of California Pioneers,
456 McAllister St., San Francisco, from the Society's Annual Bulletin,
1944, pp. 25-27.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Kuner, whose engravings are so very well known to Californians, was a Senior Member of the Society of California Pioneers, having joined the Society on June 12, 1862.

I was born on October 9th, 1819, at Lindau, a town built on an island in the Lake of Constanx. At sixteen I became an apprentice in the gold- and silversmith business, and followed it for fully twelve years at various places, for some time in Nuremberg. I always had a great liking for it so I was not long in learning the art of engraving, and carving in wood and ivory.

Then came the turbulent year of 1848. Business became very dull. I concluded to go to America, and left on the third of September on the ship *Swyzerland*. In New York I did very well until the California fever broke out.

With three friends who had come with me from home I engaged passage on the ship *Sutton*, Captain Wardle, master, Mr. Withwell, first mate, and Mr. Dowd, second mate. We sailed from New York on the first of January, 1849.

We had had hopes of spending the fourth of July in San Francisco, but in this we were badly disappointed, for the weather changed and so did the wind. So we did not get there until the twenty-second of July.

No sooner had we cast anchor than all the crew ran away to get to the mines as quickly as possible, leaving us to arrange to get our things ashore. It was quite a task as we were anchored a considerable distance off Clark's Point.

We stored our trunks and goods at a near-by canvas tent over which was hung a sign "Nordham and Gladwin", and paid a good round sum for one month in advance. We then looked for shelter for ourselves which we very readily found in a Vessel Boarding House on the Cliff, quite near the shore line.

I had intended to go to the mines, but the next day I went around to see if I could find anything in my own line of business, and to my surprise found employment at Moffat & Co.'s Assaying Office on the southeast corner of Jackson and Montgomery Streets. The firm consisted of Mr. Curtis, manager, Mr. Ward, secretary, Mr. Perry, cashier, and Mr. Moffat, assayer.

Up to the time of my employment as their engraver that firm had been issuing ingots, long in shape, with their name and value stamped on them.

The first piece of work I had to do in California was to engrave a set of steel dies for a ten dollar piece. Of course, I took great pains to do my work well, and I met with great success, giving perfect satisfaction to my employers. Then I started on a set of five dollar dies, which were also completed satisfactorily. The coins were put into circulation, if I remember rightly, in the latter part of August.

The firm built a new house on the southeast corner of Clay and Dupont Streets, being compelled to do so on account of the bay washing away our back yard fences. In October I concluded to start in for myself, and hung out my shingle for a trial. I had all the work I could do as there were by now two establishments in the "Assaying and Coining" business, and there were lots of seals to engrave.

It was just about this time that the first legislature met at Monterey, and there an act was passed to have the great seal of the State of California engraved. That honor, too,

was allotted to me by one of the members of that body, Caleb Lyon by name. A newspaper, **The Pacific News**, gave me a great puff on account of its execution.

I also engraved all the official seals for the newly created counties of the State, and also most of the Masonic, Odd Fellows, Red Men's, Druids, and so on, lodges. My family still has the impressions of these.

In the big May fire I was completely burned out, just saving my necessary tools. With a few friends we hunted for shelter and found a little house in the back of the Mansion House on Dupont Street. It was good enough for an emergency. I then looked for a place to set up in business again, and found a nice little house on Clay Street opposite Atwill's Music Store.

Together with a jeweler and a watch-maker I took the place, and we made a real nice business place out of it. It didn't last longer than a year, though, for the May fire of 1851 broke out a few doors below us in a paint store and destroyed almost everything down to the water's edge. Then we rented another shanty on Montgomery Street, near California, and while we were there the Parrott Granite Building was put up, the stone of which was all brought from China. We occupied this building until the spring of 1852 when Dr. Nuttall, our landlord, gave us notice to vacate as he intended to build. I had, of course, to look for new quarters again, and found a place in Bravermann & Levy's Jewelry Store on Washington Street opposite Maguire's Opera House. There I stayed until the spring of 1854.

I then concluded I would take a trip to Europe to see my relatives once more. So, during Easter week I sailed on the steamer **Uncle Sam** for Panama, crossed the Isthmus by mule and train, spent a few days in New York City, sailed for Havre in the steamer **Franklin**, and spent a week in Paris ordering tools and buying goods before joining my dear family. On the 14th of July, 1854, I was married to Miss Inditha Rhineck, and with her returned to California where we have since lived happily with our family of five children, four daughters and one son.

MT. OPHIR MINT

Note: We are indebted to Mr. Arthur P. Denton of Piedmont for the following taken from a letter written to Dr. N. A. Bowers:

"At last I am sending a photo of the Mt. Ophir mint. — I found the brush around the ruins so close that it was difficult to get the whole ruins in the format. The descriptive sign on the road opposite the ruin says:

MT. OPHIR MINT

"Built in 1850 by John L. Moffat, part owner of adjoining mine and of assay firm in San Francisco. Here, he coined in February, 1851, Fifty

for many years."

Joseph Henry Jackson's delightful book, *Anybody's Gold*, pp 307-8, says:

"It was some three hundred of these slugs, carried about his person, that cost a man his life and gave rise to one of the best legends of lost treasure to be found hereabouts.

"Early in the 1850s, Joseph Marre, tax collector for the county, was caught in a cloud-burst one evening as he rode toward Mariposa. They found him next day drowned. They found his horse, too, the saddle bags still in place. He was known to have had \$15,000 in gold slugs with him



Ruins of Mt. Ophir Mint, 1951

Dollar hexagonal gold coins from the local gold, all in accordance with act of Congress of Sept. 30, 1850, and repealed July 3, 1852; the only congressional act authorizing private coinage in California and making it legal tender. Its purpose was to correct the defects prevalent at that time of using gold dust and unauthorized private coinage in business. It proved beneficial and the price of gold advanced about \$2.00 per ounce. Some of these Mt. Ophir coins were held by Mariposa County residents

the night before, ready for deposit in the county treasury. But the saddle bags were empty. So were Marre's pockets. He wore no money belt. Plainly he had hidden the money somewhere for safe-keeping, perhaps before he tackled the swollen stream that swept him to his death. But where? Those 300 slugs would be a great fortune today. Yet, tho hundreds have dreamed and dug, following Marre's route as nearly as they could guess it, the money has never been found."

'Benicia Mint' Conjecture

By ROY HILL, *San Francisco*

Mint operations at Benicia by Norris, Grieg & Norris have been indicated by various references to coining activity there as early as May 31, 1849, but facts are missing which would give the exact location of any such mint at Benicia.

Travel literature of 1849 called the attention of visitors to a mint at Benicia and newspaper accounts mention coins by Norris, Grieg and Norris being turned out there. Stockton is sometimes mentioned as the site. The coins of this firm are identified to San Francisco by the imprint of that city's name, but no coins are known with a Benicia imprint.

Just where were these coins made? This same question may be posed regarding the mint site for coins of Templeton Reid (of Lumpkin Co., Ga., fame) of whom about all that seems to be known of his California operations is that he was at one time in the San Jose-Santa Clara area. His coins have the name of San Francisco on them, also.

Some light might be thrown on Benicia by an article written by L. P. Marshall in the February, 1912, issue of a popular western monthly of bygone days, "Out West". Marshall's article deals with an early day place called Montezuma, a pioneer townsite which was laid out in 1846 by Lansing W. Hastings. Hastings had arrived in California in 1843 with Pierson B. Redding, S. J. Hensley and Nathan Coombs, among others, and later served as a member of the 1849 California Constitutional Convention in Monterey.

Montezuma was about 45 miles from San Francisco, near the mouth and on the west bank of the Sacramento River, beyond Benicia. The nearest abode was an old adobe house built by John Bidwell in 1844 under terms of a grant of land to him, about 13 miles further up the river. Bidwell is more prominently associated with the Chico area in Butte Co.

General M. G. Vallejo, on May 19, 1847, deeded to Robert Semple and Thomas O. Larkin a tract of land for the townsite of Benicia and by June the first house was erected. A second townsite for this area was to be laid out by Lansing W. Hastings as the place where the Mormons were to settle. They had set out for the San Francisco area and Hastings had selected Montezuma as their townsite. The Mormons settled in Salt Lake City, however, under the spell of the famous utterance, "This is the place", and so Montezuma remained unsettled.

L. P. Marshall Sr. was roaming the country hereabouts with some cattle in 1852-53. He had heard of a house in the region from a Major Stephen Cooper, so with his sons, John and Knox, he proceeded to occupy it.

The article by L. P. Marshall then says, "In and about the house we found appliances for the manufacture of counterfeit coins, such as crucibles, dies, copper, etc. It is supposed that a band of counterfeiters had found the place deserted and had taken possession of it."

This discovery of such equipment in 1852-53, a scant three years after Norris, Grieg and Norris' first operations in California, might suggest that it may have been some of their equipment either at the actual site of operations or moved there for storage and abandoned. Then, too, it could have been an advance shipment of coining equipment for the Mormons, who were enroute to the area but did not get there. We do know they made private gold coins in Salt Lake City. This could be equipment they never got to use.

The mention of the word "dies" in the quoted portion of the article by L. P. Marshall, without mention of the designs thereon, leaves the matter open to speculation as to whose they were, if not for counterfeiters' use as suggested in the article.

The Days of '49

By MRS. HARRY CUTLER, San Francisco

It has been said truly that "coins are the pearls on the thread of history".¹ To those busy people and the younger generation who may not take the time to go back into the remarkable history of the minting of private gold coins in San Francisco, of the reason for the private coins, for the U. S. Assay Office, and the final establishment of the U. S. Branch Mint, a brief explanation may be helpful in enabling them to understand the circumstance which brought forth the beautiful coin specimens known as Pioneer Gold. Here are but a few of the amazing events which led to the minting of coins by private individuals.

To quote Edgar Adams who has so aptly explained it, "because of the discovery of gold in California, January 24, 1848, and the development of its mines, one of the most stringent financial periods through which this country has ever passed, abruptly ended. The enormous product of the precious metal thus thrown upon the markets of the world immediately placed our country on that solid and prosperous basis which it has ever since maintained, for the achievement of this result was unquestionably due

to the yield from the California mines, more than any other single agency."²

Prior to 1848 our country had been going through a period of economic depression which has since become proverbially known as the "Hard Times". This extended from 1833 to 1844 and the country had not yet recovered from its effects. There was an extreme shortage of currency, both gold and silver of all denominations, and great was the need.

When word went out throughout the country and into foreign lands of the gold discovery in California, many hundreds of ships set sail for the port of San Francisco, laden with goods to sell and trade. This merchandise had to pass through U. S. Customs and duties had to be paid. U. S. law required duties to be paid only in mint coin, and so all coined gold and silver was being hoarded by importers to pay customs. Silver also was required in payment of goods from China, as the Orientals

¹"March of Money".

²This and succeeding quotations from Edgar H. Adams, *Private Gold Coinage of California*.



Augustus Humbert, 50 dollars, 1852. Milled edge, target reverse.



Kellogg & Co., 50 dollars, 1855. Weight 1309 grains.

would not accept gold for their merchandise. Thus the San Francisco buyers were paying a premium in gold for silver coins to pay for their imports from China. This naturally added to the great scarcity of currency in the ordinary channels of trade.

In the summer of 1848, the need being imperative, Governor Mason was asked to provide some means of relief. He at once instructed the collector to accept gold-dust at its then intrinsic value of \$16 an ounce but was forced to revoke this as it violated U. S. law with regard to the kind of money acceptable to the government. He then permitted the merchants to deposit their gold-dust at the rate of \$10 an ounce, redeemable with the prescribed coin in 60 days. Otherwise, it would be sold at auction. As coin was almost unobtainable, they were compelled to stand hopelessly by and see their gold-dust sold for \$6 to \$8 per ounce, in most cases to a speculator who had somehow come into the possession of acceptable coin.

The San Francisco merchants then met to devise means to protect themselves against this heavy loss. Several methods were suggested but none proved satisfactory. As the supply was so extremely limited, it was then proposed that private assayers issue gold pieces to replace the common currency of gold dust. Early in 1849 the private issues began to appear, releasing the coins hoarded for duties and providing a

means by which the miners received considerably more for their gold than the established rate. In the United States proper, the first mining operations were conducted in North Carolina. Private gold coins were being made in Georgia and North Carolina as early as 1830 and long after the U. S. Branch Mint had begun operations there, and were still operating at the time of the great discovery in California. When, therefore, California felt the need of such an issue, no one disputed the right of private mints to supply it.

Among the many assayers operating in San Francisco was John L. Moffat, a highly respected former New York assayer, who with three partners was doing an assaying and gold brokerage business under the name of Moffat & Co. The first rectangular ingots of gold to appear bore their stamp, and passed current in place of coins. Soon, however, they issued circular \$10 pieces, all bearing the stamp of Moffat & Co. The closing months of 1849 saw an avalanche of private gold. Every big company from the East brought machinery for coining. These private mints rendered a great service at a critical time, increasing the value of raw gold in California. It also is reasonable that the private issue of gold quarters, halves and dollars was no doubt first prompted by the scarcity of fractional currency.

Did these courageous pioneers have an easy time of it from now on? Not

so, for some coiners, not satisfied with a normal profit, had debased their product to such an extent that suspicion was gradually brought upon the whole series and stirred the business men into action to provide some plan for relief. The result was that the State Legislature passed a bill requiring all coiners to redeem all such coin within 30 days or be subject to penalties. The Custom House and Post Office refused the coins and many mercantile firms denied them. Even the brokers would not take them at their par value.

Moffat & Co. published a statement assuring the public that they had defrauded no man as their coins were worth more than they purported to be; furthermore, the subject actually belonged to Congress and not to the State. The firm of Moffat & Co. alone survived the struggle of 1849. In 1850 two new companies appeared. On Sept. 30, 1850, Congress authorized the appointment of a United States Assayer. This was deemed preferable to the system of private coinage, although certainly not desirable as a regular mint issue. (Early in March 1851 the State Legislature repealed the Act of 1850 prohibiting coining by private individuals.)

The U. S. Assayer, Augustus Humbert, began his duties about the first of February, 1851. Moffat & Co. who had meanwhile become assay contractors, obtained the contract with the national government, abandoned their private issues and took up the exclusive work of striking the \$50 "slugs". The other companies continued minting private coins, though there continued an undercurrent of distrust in them. Soon bankers refused all of them excepting Moffat's, and the mercantile community followed. This resulted in abandonment of private issues for the second time. All private coins went to the Assay Office melting pot, only to appear as \$50 slugs, leaving nothing of the smaller denominations for local circulation. U. S. mint and other coins were hoarded as before and once more the lack of coin was felt by every class in the community. The embarrassment became so great that Moffat & Co. asked to be permitted to issue ingots of less than \$50 value but this was refused as "inexpedient" and the disastrous effect on business,

both in San Francisco and throughout the State, was a theme of complaint. It was not until December 1851 that the U. S. Assayer was authorized to stamp gold ingots of the value of \$10 and \$20 and this permission was revoked the following day! But before the permission and recall could reach San Francisco many prominent bankers and business men had united in requesting Moffat & Co. to issue \$300,000 in small denominations bearing their private stamp to meet the pressing need, until the U. S. Assayer should receive proper authority to do so. This request was dated Jan. 5, 1852. Moffat & Co. reluctantly consented and in a few days the new pieces appeared. This met with some criticism, notwithstanding the urgent need so generally admitted. A vigorous appeal to the Secretary of the Treasury made by the U. S. Assayer and supplemented by the influence of prominent business men in California and New York had an evident effect, for on Feb. 11, 1852, authority was received to issue \$10 and \$20 ingots at the U. S. Assay Office, and this was continued during 1853.

On July 3, 1852, the Act authorizing the establishment of the San Francisco Branch Mint was passed by Congress. The procrastination of a branch mint was at an end at last! The construction of the mint was finished in 1854 and by April 3 it was in operation. The coins issued were more to test the machinery and once more the need for currency was met by private issues. This time the coins were made by Kellogg & Company. John G. Kellogg, who had been cashier for Moffat & Co. and remained with the U. S. Assay Office until it dissolved in December 1853, opened an assay office of his own.

In 1854 a petition was addressed to Mr. Kellogg asking that gold be struck with their stamp. Kellogg & Co. issued their first coin Feb. 9, 1854. It was an exact and very handsome imitation of the United States coins, the only difference being the name in place of Liberty, and yellow instead of copper alloy. The Branch Mint still was not making sufficient coins; therefore, Kellogg made the bulk of the issues. The latter part of 1854 the company dissolved and became Kellogg & Humbert, and continued until 1860,

though they ceased striking coins in 1855 after making more in that year than before, effecting over 50% more toward the supply than the United States Mint. In fact, the newspaper at that time said, but for this private mint, San Francisco might have been bankrupt. So far as general circulation was concerned, the end of 1856 saw the private gold coins of California quietly pass out of existence.

The dies for the Kellogg \$50 slug were cut by a well known die cutter, Ferdinand Gruner, and represent one of the handsomest pieces of diecutting in the entire California series. These dies are still in existence. Today there are only 13 known pieces, and it is thought it may never have gone beyond the experimental stage. However, in a letter dated 1891, Kellogg's son stated that his father had struck 60,000 pieces. This letter was printed in the *Numismatist*, February 1921. If this is true, the coins probably were recoined by the Branch Mint.

"The coins struck in California from 1849 to 1855 inclusive, which passed as money, form one of the most interesting series of pieces that have ever been issued in this country, for they were intimately connected with a time which, with the exception of the Wars of the Revolution of 1812, and of 1861, was one of the most sensational in our national history."

We are deeply indebted to these pioneers and we cannot but feel a sense of gratitude for the discovery of gold in California at a time of extreme crisis in the history of our great country. Gold has not circulated as money since 1933, it being stored as bullion, saving the cost of coinage. The United States Branch Mint in San Francisco, established 100 years ago, discontinued coining on March 25 of this year. Thus another institution which is welded into the history of California has quietly closed its doors to the manufacture of money. **THE END**



Wass, Molitor & Co., 50 dollars, 1855. Weight 1287.5 grains.



JUBILEE MEDAL, discovery of gold in California, 1848-1898. Obverse, bust of James W. Marshall; reverse, Saw Mill of Coloma, Jan. 19, 1848. SUTTER'S FORT, as portrayed on medal of the Golden Gate International Exposition, 1939. Diameters 35 and 32 mm., respectively.

California, the Golden State

By MILTON C. STRAUCH, Daly City

California's name probably had its origin in a sixteenth century Spanish story which described it as a mythical island inhabited by Amazons and rich in gold. The name first was applied by Spanish explorers to the California Peninsula and later included an area up the coast.

Hernando de Alarcon, searching with Coronado for the fabled Seven Cities of Cibola in 1540, was the first explorer to set foot on California soil. Credit for the state's discovery is given to Juan Cabrillo, who on Sept. 28, 1542, sailed into San Diego Bay, and who later made explorations northward past the Golden Gate. Other explorations followed at intervals.

Colonization of Baja California was started in 1697 by the establishment of a mother mission, which was the beginning of a chain of missions northward. Spain's plan was to colonize Alta California with missions, presidios and pueblos simultaneously. Father Junipero Serra, a Spanish Franciscan missionary, started the first mission in 1769. The mission fathers brought to the Indians a measure of learning and practical experience in construction and agriculture. Pueblos were established at locations that became Los Angeles, San Jose and Santa Cruz; and presidios were established at San Diego, Santa

Barbara, Monterey and San Francisco.

One reason for Spanish colonization of Alta California was the threat of the Russians who held Alaska, and who established a settlement north of San Francisco Bay at Fort Ross in 1812.

In 1822 Mexico declared her independence from Spain, and California became a Mexican province.

European settlers began to arrive in small numbers. In 1814 the first Englishman had come to California. In 1839 John Sutter, a Swiss, arrived. The next year he began building his agricultural empire on the Sacramento River. In 1841 he purchased all of the property at Fort Ross from the Russians, and their withdrawal the following year ended the threat of Russian domination in California.

Great Britain and France indicated interest in California. At the same time, feeling grew in the United States that its logical western border was the Pacific Ocean. By the 1840s California was a focal point of international interest. There was conflict between American settlers and local Mexican officials. In May 1846, war between the United States and Mexico was declared. A group of English-speaking settlers raised the Bear flag at Sonoma on June 14, 1846, declaring California a sovereign state. The

Bear Flag Republic was short-lived, however, for on July 7, Commodore John Sloat of the United States Navy raised the American flag at the Mexican capital of Monterey; two days later, Captain Montgomery raised the flag at San Francisco. In February 1848 the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed and the war ended.

gold issues, culminating in the establishment of a branch mint at San Francisco in 1854. Most private gold mints, such as the Cincinnati Mining and Trading Co., the Miners Bank, the Massachusetts and California Co. and the Pacific Co. ceased to operate in 1850. The firm of Moffat and Co. in San Francisco (1849-1853) was the



CALIFORNIA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION HALF DOLLAR

Early coins of truly California character cannot be found, as there were none. Spanish and later Mexican coins circulated the region known as California.

On Jan. 24, 1848, James Marshall discovered gold at Coloma on the American River, and although an attempt was made to keep the find secret, the news soon was known over the countryside. President Polk formally announced the discovery in his annual message and the gold rush began in earnest. Heavy immigration into the potentially wealthy section began; people came by wagon, boat or by any means they could find.

In the days following the discovery of gold in California, the money question was most predominant as it affected the lives of everyone. The lack of a circulating medium proved to be the greatest obstacle to ordinary business transactions. Under the administration of the military government of the territory, the impossibility of collecting duties in coin as prescribed by law was so apparent that the officers of collection had to accept gold dust on deposit as security for ultimate payment in coin.

The California gold discovery in 1848 was responsible for an interesting series of private and territorial

most important of the California coiners. Moffat issued ingots, \$5 and \$10 gold pieces. The Moffat coins were accepted in trade with confidence by everyone. In 1850 Moffat and Co. received a government contract to assay and fix the value of gold.

Augustus Humbert was appointed United States assayer in 1851. The assay office was a temporary expedient to adapt Californians to a branch mint. As a result, after taking the contract, the price of gold dust immediately became stabilized and Moffat and Co. ceased to issue private coins.

The octagonal \$50 coin at first was gratefully received by the Californians, as they needed badly a medium which would be accepted at the Custom House, where gold dust and private gold coins were refused. It was accepted as legal tender on a par with standard United States gold coins, and was known variously as a slug, quintuple eagle or five eagle piece. Officially it was termed an ingot.

The Californians found the new \$50 slug was the only gold coin in circulation. It was too large a denomination for an ordinary business deal. Two to three per cent was charged

for changing one of them. Moffat and Co. soon was criticized by the tradespeople. The company asked for permission from the Secretary of the United States Treasury to supply coins of smaller amounts, but was refused authority to relieve the citizens.

Fractional currency coins of almost every nation were pressed into service by Californians, but the supply was too small to help to any extent. Local business men and bankers, however, urgently requested Moffat and Co. to relieve the money situation; hence, the company proceeded in 1852 to issue a \$10 piece bearing the stamp "Moffat and Company." Government authority for an issue of \$10 and \$20 gold pieces was officially accepted in early 1852.

The firm of Moffat and Co. dissolved about this time and a new reorganized company known as the United States Assay Office of Gold took over the contract, retaining the right to use the name "Moffat and Company." No \$50 ingots were made by the company after 1852. Many of these coins were remelted, probably because they were worth more than face value. When the United States Assay Office ceased operations, a

United States branch mint in San Francisco.

In 1776, a mission called San Francisco was established, but the settlement was known as Yerba Buena. The name was changed to San Francisco in 1847. In 1844 the Golden Gate was called "Crysopylas," from the Greek words "chryos," gold, and "pyle," gate, because it was the entrance to the land of gold. (Fremont) In April 1906 an earthquake and fire devastated the city. The Panama Pacific International Exposition (1915) opened to show the world that the queen city of the Pacific, San Francisco, had rebuilt, and also to honor the opening of the Panama Canal.

To commemorate the PPIE at San Francisco, the San Francisco branch mint struck one silver and four gold coins. These coins have the distinction of being the first United States commemoratives to carry the motto "In God We Trust." The obverse of the half dollar shows Columbia scattering flowers of welcome upon the Pacific Ocean as an open invitation to all nations to sail into San Francisco Bay. Beyond, the sun is setting and casting its rays upon the Golden Gate; behind is a nude youth with a



SAN FRANCISCO-OAKLAND BAY BRIDGE HALF DOLLAR

period ensued during which no private firm struck gold. The new San Francisco branch mint did not produce coins for some months. The lack of coin again was felt by business men, who petitioned Kellogg and Richter to issue private coin. Round \$20 and \$50 pieces were minted 1854-1855. This was the last of the private coinage in California; henceforth, coins minted came only from the

cornucopia. The reverse shows a shield of the United States, surmounted by an eagle.

The gold dollar was truly modern. On obverse is the head of a laborer, in honor of the men whose work made the canal a reality. The reverse shows two dolphins circling, representing a meeting of the two oceans.

The quarter eagle was the first

commemorative coin of that denomination. Columbia on its obverse is shown carrying a caduceus and riding a hippocampus, symbolically inviting the nations of the world to use the new waterway. On reverse is an eagle in a position of watchful warning.

In 1915, the first \$50 coins ever to be authorized by the United States government were struck. These coins commemorated two events, the greatest of world expositions and the historic \$50 slug of pioneer days. The obverse on both round and octagonal pieces shows a helmeted head of Minerva, a favorite Roman goddess, facing to left. A shield at her left shoulder is inscribed MCMXV or 1915 in Roman numerals. Around the coin is the inscription, "United States of America — Fifty Dollars." In the eight angles of the octagon are eight dolphins, which convey the idea of an uninterrupted water route. On reverse the

design is that of an owl, perched on the branch of a western pine—a symbol of Minerva. To the right of the owl is "E Pluribus Unum." Around the coin is inscribed "Panama Pacific Exposition San Francisco." As on the obverse, dolphins are found in the angles of the octagon.

The completion of the Panama Canal, the opening of new trade routes, and the building of the great western part of the United States show reason enough why engraver Robert Aitken chose Minerva for these coins. She was goddess of wisdom and war.

It was a fitting tribute to California's glorious numismatic past that the San Francisco Mint was given the right in 1915 to coin the Panama Pacific pieces, which now memorialize San Francisco and California for all time.

California Gold, History and Coinage

(With Special Reference to Quarters, Halves, and Dollars)

By KENNETH W. LEE, *Glendale*

In 1542 when Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo, a well-known Portuguese navigator, sailed into the Bay of San Diego, little did he realize the importance of his discovery or the part California was to play in world history some 300 years later. It was not until July 1, 1769, that civilization came to this section of the country which we now call California. On that day, in that same Bay of San Diego, several sea and land parties which had been sent out from Lower California by the Jesuit faith met, and at that time the Spanish period in our state's history began, for the Jesuits founded the chain of California Missions which are so historic and interesting today. This period in California history is without doubt one of the most romantic and picturesque ever written.

We can pause only briefly to give credit for the opening of the country to the outside world and to the missionaries who helped to civilize the Indian tribes and pave the way for the adventurers and homeseekers who were to follow. It was during this period that gold in California is first recorded. Gold in this state has

been known from almost the very first writings which have been preserved. The Franciscan monks were custodians of bags of gold dust and nuggets dug from the surrounding hills and brought in by the Indians and Spaniards to exchange for supplies.

The discovery of gold in January, 1848, by James Marshall at Sutter's Mill, caused one of the greatest and most frantic stampedes in all history. It brought thousands and thousands of gold-seekers to San Francisco from all over the world—one of the most motley aggregations of humanity ever gathered together. This word, "gold," spread like magic everywhere—North, South, East, and West it traveled like wildfire. The quiet, sleepy village of San Francisco became, overnight, a roaring, seething, rushing, beehive of people. Sailors deserted their ships, men their businesses and work—everywhere there was a rush for fortunes in mining gold! By the summer of 1849, San Francisco was an exciting, successful, mushroomed, cosmopolitan city. Hundreds of ships lay idle in the bay. Everywhere men were talking and dreaming gold and people were fran-

Minor Gold of the Golden State



—Cut courtesy Kenneth W. Lee, Glendale.

tic over its possession. The poor were becoming the rich.

With thousands of people literally "poured" into a section where only a few had existed before, the problem of monetary exchange became, overnight, a very serious question. Even the money of many different nations, passing current everywhere, was not sufficient to lessen the need for an immediate increase in the circulating medium. True, gold dust and nuggets were exchanged freely, but not always to the satisfaction of all concerned. There was considerable variation even in this, and it is said that anyone with an exceptionally large thumb and forefinger could get top wages as a bartender. The cost of a drink was generally a pinch of gold: that is, all the barkeep could get of gold dust when he reached into the miner's poke with his thumb and forefinger!

Although gold dust circulated freely, the customs house refused to accept either dust or nuggets in payment of duties, and much-needed merchandise was accumulating for the want of coin to pay the duty. On July 27, 1848, a letter signed by a number of influential San Franciscans was forwarded to Governor Mason, the military governor, whose headquarters were at Monterey (at that time a more important station than San Francisco), asking that he make a concession in favor of the holders of gold dust for payment of the customs duties.

The next day a reply was received from the governor in which he said, "I have no hesitation in saying that if the California grain dust, now in such a b u n d a n t quantities in this country, CAN BE WROUGHT INTO A CONVENIENT SHAPE so as to act as a substitute for gold and silver coin, I will order it to be received at the customs house in payments of duties at its intrinsic value."

Governor Mason's answer to the petition of the citizens was one of the most important points in pioneer coinage history. The military government, itself not able to meet the demands for better conditions in monetary exchanges nor to satisfy the immediate dire needs, although gold was so plentiful in the country, encouraged the coinage of the much-talked-about, and now much coveted, private or territorial California gold.

Nothing more was needed for cer-

tain firms to begin immediately the manufacture and issue of gold coins and ingots. Many banking and trading companies made large quantities of ingots for use in customs duty payments. Governor Mason discovered that his act was of doubtful legality, however, and he revoked the order only a few days after its issuance. This, of course, caused considerable consternation among the people, who held public meetings to discuss the issue. These meetings were attended by miners, bankers, traders, and the people in general, to see if some plan could be adopted to relieve the situation and to stabilize the monetary exchanges. Finally, the general meetings adopted a set standard of gold dust exchange value at \$16 an ounce.

A few months thereafter, toward the latter part of May, 1849, there appeared the first of the many pioneer gold coinages, a \$5 piece of Norris, Grieg & Norris, and many others followed shortly. The need was so great for the coins that, regardless of any order, no action ever was invoked against the coiners. Actually, had it not been for the coinage of money, even though illegal, it would have been impossible for much progress to have been made in the following few years. It is of particular interest to collectors that private coinage continued at a rapid rate.

It is reported that by the end of 1849 there was a perfect avalanche of private gold, mostly larger denominations. Although a later legislative law was enacted forbidding the making of coins by unauthorized persons, most of the coiners agreed to redeem their issues, and placed sufficient gold intrinsic value to equal, and in a few cases, to exceed, the redemption values. We must realize, therefore, that in the later rush to redeem, most all demands were met and the coins were remelted. This caused the scarcity which now exists of these historically interesting pieces.

While the population was being somewhat provided with money of larger denominations, there still was a need for smaller change. During this entire period and even until sometime after the Civil War, minor issues generally were scarce throughout the country. Since the need for smaller change could not be greatly relieved from the outside, it had to be met by a local coinage.

What would be more convenient or more popular than little fractional gold pieces? People were used to gold, and these small denominations would fit easily into their coinage system. So, about the year 1852, small gold quarters, halves, and dollars appeared. The abundance of these fractional issues facilitated commercial transactions for several years. Although a mint was established which commenced coinage in 1854, of a million dollars worth of coins minted that year, only 15,000 dollars were coined. During the following year, 18 million dollars in coins were struck, and there were NO dollars! So it is easy to understand why the government for some time allowed private mints to supply the need for small change in minor gold issues.

During the period of these minor issues, many variations occurred. The entire series consists of six main divisions: quarters, halves, and dollars, both round and octagon in shape. These are divided into Liberty and Indian heads, with a few Washington heads, and are further divided by dates, number of stars, etc. A quick study reveals some very interesting things—many differences due to the skill of the engravers; octagon \$1 pieces with eagles similar to those on the \$50 slugs, perhaps indicating that the same firms struck both coins; quarter and half dollar pieces with 25 CENTS and 50 CENTS instead of the usual $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ DOLLAR; in some it certainly shows that there were able workmen in those days.

In studying the genuine issues, there is a general underlying pattern and style which seems to have been followed throughout. This is very important in telling the differences between genuine pieces and the many imitations. Pieces engraved and struck in a far later period show an entirely different style from that used by the earlier engravers, and generally are easily detected.

The variety of gold differs, and many later issues struck exist without any values shown. In the genuine or original issues, the word DOLLAR, DOL, etc., **Must** be on the coin — some definite reference to the actual denominational value. In 1882 a law was passed prohibiting the use of the word DOLLAR on any gold pieces other than the regular United

States issues, so that after a time any persons attempting to imitate the little fractional coins and dating them back to the gold rush days, would, of necessity, have to refrain from using the word DOLLAR on their pieces. Therefore, the outstanding rule to be used in determining whether the pieces in question are really genuine coins, is to be certain that the word DOLLAR does appear on the coins themselves.

For such a large number and variety of small issues which we know about today, it is quite a mystery who struck some of the pieces. It is certain that many contributed their skill, as the varied designs will bear out in study. Many jewelers, engravers, and goldsmiths issued pieces, some of them having their initials on their issues. These are somewhat identified. The NR which appears on some of the dollars stands for Nouzillet & Routhier; the FD which appears on both dollars and half dollars stands for Frautier, Deviercy & Co.; the N on several dollar varieties stands for Antoine Louis Nouzillet; the Deri and Derib varieties of the octagon dollars stands for M. Deriberpe, an engraver; and the GG variety of the round half dollar stands for Gaime, Guillemot & Co. Another maker of early pieces whose initials evidently do not appear on any of them is Pierre Frontier. And the name of Kuner has been connected with the cutting of some of the dies.

California gold quarters, halves, and dollars consist now of well over 400 different varieties, and there undoubtedly are many more. The fascination of pursuing a hobby and collection of this kind is the often unexpected discovery of a new type or a new variety. How many different ones exist no one knows. How many were struck is very much of a conjecture, and it will be only through the constant and persistent checking and cataloging of varieties that perhaps some day some semblance of order may be gained. The late Ed. M. Lee published a reference book on this subject in 1932, in which he listed some 250 varieties. This publication long has been out of print. Because of the increasing interest in this series, and the many types and varieties cataloged since that time, it is hoped that a new list may be published in the not-too-distant future.

California Money, 1849-50

By JOHANN EDUARD KNOCHE

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Knoche was a Senior Member of the Society of California Pioneers. Part of his autobiography was printed in the Society's Quarterly in December 1925.

During my first years in California our money system was of a curious sort, and consisted mostly of peculiar shaped coins. The passengers from the many vessels, hailing from all parts of the world, as well as the people coming over land, brought some small change with them. So the coins of almost every country were represented — American, Prussian, English, German, French, Russian, Mexican, Chilean. Rubles, dollars, thaler, gulden, five francs silver, forty francs gold, and for small change there were reales (long bits), dimes (short bits), cajugas, groschen, three or four cornered Chilean reales, grote, and Mexican and Spanish dollars. All were good here.

Still all these were not enough to supply the demand. Thus, often gold dust had to be used, weighed by the scale. Here, however, the miner was cheated. By and by the Miner's Bank, and also the Baldwin, began to coin \$5 and \$10 pieces from our native dust. This was welcome and gave some relief, but it was not lawful money and soon disappeared when it had fallen to \$4.50 and \$9.00 in value.

Paper currency never obtained a foothold in California, although I know that Banker Bourgoyne had prepared for it and had had a great quantity printed in New Orleans. I never saw it or any other in circulation. Later on the government coined the ugly, clumsy slugs, eight cornered \$50 pieces. This brought relief for several years, until superseded by the regular government coin.

We had a store, the Mariposa, in San Jose, and also one in San Francisco. My partner, Auzerais, was very busy in San Jose, so that he had no time to sort and count money. He put all the coin, big and little, gold

and silver, into a sack, sealed it, and sent me so many "pounds and ounces" of money. I, in San Francisco, had to sort and count it. Then I would go to the bank where we arranged it in this way:

5 Sovereigns00
40 Francs00
5 American coins (premium).....	.00
10 Ounces of Gold Dust.....	.00
6 Rubles00
4 Frederick d'ors00
Etc.00
Total00

Then, when I drew, I could only draw slugs — \$50 or \$100 or \$1000, but not, say, \$165.50. In purchasing goods, therefore, we had to make up the difference with coin itself. For retail trade the slug was very handy, as the store-keeper could rarely change them. This was convenient for the bums, though, who would treat all around, then hand out a slug which the bar-keeper could not change. They would then promise to pay some other time, which generally meant never.

In those days there were no banks in San Jose where one could deposit money. A friend of mine sold some property for \$6,000, all in good American coin. He requested me to store it for him in my store, which I did. Now it was customary between neighbors to accommodate one another in changing slugs if one could. When I had \$6,000 lying idle I changed a slug for a neighbor. Soon another came, then others, and in a short time I had changed twenty-nine slugs. Then I accidentally heard that slugs were down to \$49. I quickly went to Mr. Putney, for whom I had changed a slug a minute before, to ask him to take it back, but he laughed at me. I had to bear the \$29 loss for the privilege of accommodating others.

Although the main trade was transacted in gold dust in the first years, one rarely saw much of the yellow metal itself, in spite of the fact that many carried their go'd in leather sacks. The Mexicans kept their small gold in goose quills in their pockets. At times a large specimen would be shown in the show windows of some bank or Broker's office. The most to be seen was on the gamblers' tables, where usually a few specimens, as thick as a man's fist, lay surrounded by smaller ones piled six to eight inches high. These were artistically surrounded by stars, etc., made of ten and five dollar gold

pieces and a stack of silver dollars.

One day while I was working as a goldsmith in the fourth story of the building on the corner of Clay and Montgomery Streets, our boss told us to go down into the bank below to see the gold exhibited there. It belonged to three partners, only four weeks in the country, who had deposited their earnings — \$75,000. That is the only big pile I ever saw. It was all fine gold, amalgamated, and the quicksilver driven off. It had the shape of the retorts used in the volatilization. One lump was four by six inches, another eight by ten.

The Pleasures of Gold

By RONNIE CARR, TULARE

Since the beginning of time man always has found a place in his existence for gold, whether it be as medium of exchange or object of art. Why is this metallic element held on the altar of esteem? A good question, to be sure; perhaps even impossible to explain or answer. Multitudes of human beings have paid the high price of death in taking gold ore from the veins of Mother Nature. Countless others have stolen, cheated, lied and killed to possess these yellowish lumps of power. Even if one cannot rationally explain why gold holds him in awe, he still desires to possess it.

The greedy and ambitious oftentimes unwittingly produced beauty in their quest for power and fame. In times gone by, rulers of mighty nations, bored with their excesses of natural gold, had the common ore designed into objects of art. Today many of these pieces remain and colorfully decorate museums for all to appreciate.

We are prone to think of gold coinage in terms of recent times and especially to pay tribute to our own nation's coinage system. But we Americans are mere infants when it comes to writing history with gold coins. Our mints coined gold from

1795 through 1933, whereas in Europe gold coins were used hundreds of years before Christ.

It is indeed a shame that we in the United States have not cultivated more appreciation for foreign gold coinage. The workmanship and tales of ancient gold pieces are both interesting and educational. The near-complete story of man's political being on earth can be read from these informative items. For someone bored with modern sameness, I recommend assembling gold coins from all parts of the world. It still is relatively inexpensive to put together a worthwhile collection of these pieces, particularly in comparison to the high prices of early United States and pioneer gold.

Anyone desiring to collect United States gold can do so in several ways. First, he can assemble a type set of each denomination, excluding of course the rare "Stella" and "Slug"; or he can put together the first year of each denomination. Then, too, complete sets of various styles of engraving, such as the incuse design of the Indian quarter and half eagles, are most satisfying. Proof gold both in the mirror-like and matte proof finish

is without doubt one of the most "opulent" sights to behold. Collecting by birth date is popular. No matter how one collects U. S. gold, it will bring him pleasure. Pride of ownership is personified in gold.

Of all the different modes in collecting, I profoundly respect and admire pioneer gold. Pioneer gold of California represents the manifestation of all that is good and evil in man. There were firms of honesty and integrity, and others of a most questionable nature.

The first \$10 piece privately struck in California was by the Miners' Bank of San Francisco in 1849. This company produced coins not readily accepted by the public because they were heavily alloyed with copper and worth less than face value. Baldwin & Company, also of San Francisco, issued gold coins in 1850 and 1851, with an intrinsic value below their face value. Public opinion was swayed against Baldwin & Company when a leading newspaper ran an editorial entitled "The Gold Coin Swindle." The article attacked this firm for imposing a five per cent penalty for redemption of its gold coins in silver.

Although several companies during the Gold Rush days attempted to defraud the public, there were organizations of good repute and dependability. Such an establishment was Moffat & Company of San Francisco, founded in 1849 by John L. Moffat, a New York assayer, who quickly associated himself with Joseph Curtis, P. H. W. Perry and Samuel H. Ward in the business of assaying and smelting. Moffat & Company produced small rectangular gold bars and a range of coins up to the massive \$50 "slug." This reputable firm operated from 1849 until 1853, a period of time longer than any other private company in California. When Moffat retired in 1853, the business was taken over by his partners and became known as the United States Assay Office of Gold. The people's confidence in Moffat & Company was proved by its long acceptance as the "House of Honesty."

Moving away from the part California played in our pioneer past, we enter a more complex field. This area includes such famous firms as J. J. Conway & Company and John Parsons & Company. Both these companies issued gold coins in Colorado about 1861. Nearly all that is known of these firms is based on conjecture.

The scarcity of these territorial gold pieces is exceeded only by the even scarcer availability of accurate data concerning the men who issued these classic examples of true Americana. Another example is found in Templeton Reid, assayer in Lumpkin County, Ga., in 1830. Nothing really is known about this man; however, his coins today are cherished by those who are fortunate enough to own them. Probably the mystery of the ages is: "What became of the Templeton Reid \$25 gold piece struck in 1849 at San Francisco?" This coin was stolen from the cabinet of the U. S. Mint on Aug. 16, 1858, and has never been recovered. What a fancy price this unique denomination coin would bring at public auction today! Its ownership would give even greater satisfaction.

Another field of gold collecting from which one can derive great pleasure is the study and assembling of California small fractional gold pieces. Issued in Indian and Liberty heads of quarter dollar, half dollar and dollar denominations, they are both round and octagonal. So-called jewelers' pieces are flooding the market today and unfortunately have distracted beginners away from the genuine specimens. Thousands of the real types do exist, so one really can have his hands full collecting them.

The actual worth of collecting comes not from profits but from the social aspects. One will meet and talk with pleasing personalities wherever he visits. Constantly words and historical facts of which he was not aware pop up due to research. This can improve one's vocabulary tremendously, and make him more appreciative of the past.

Exhibiting a collection of gold can be inwardly rewarding. By doing this one affords the opportunity to others to view something of beauty that they do not often have the chance to see.

True numismatics is the study and collecting of medals and coins. Speculating and investing in rolls and proof sets is perhaps wise as a business venture. But numismatics should not be a business--on the contrary, it most assuredly should be a hobby for pleasure.

Coins will forever play a major role in man's happiness and sadness. He can be assured gold will be there, always at his side, making life a little more worthwhile.

California's Commemoratives

By JOHN E. OHLS, San Francisco

On the morning of June 21, 1915, at precisely 11 o'clock, T. W. H. Shanahan, superintendent of the San Francisco Mint, stood before a representative group of people who had been invited specifically for the occasion, and said, "Ladies and gentlemen, I am about to strike the first \$50 coin ever to be authorized by the United States Government." He stepped to a table and picked up a gold planchet some two inches in diameter and about a quarter inch thick, octagonal in shape. He continued, "This event should be of particular interest to Californians, as it commemorates two occasions — the greatest of world expositions and the historic \$50 slug of pioneer days."

He then pulled a lever that set 450 tons of striking power into action, transforming an ordinary gold planchet into one of the world's most beautiful coins. With a special pair of tongs, he removed the coin and passed it to Charles C. Moore, president of the great Panama-Pacific International Exposition. After careful examination, Moore pronounced it a perfect coin and passed it around for all to see. Then Moore stepped to the press and with a few appropriate remarks, struck piece No. 2. The third piece was struck by a Captain C. Miranda of the Argentine Government; the fourth by the Hon. Julius Kahn, Congressman from California and author and supporter of the PPIC Commemorative coin bill in Congress.

There were 28 invited guests present on this occasion and each one had his turn at the press. What a momentous occasion it must have been for them!

Numismatists and numismatics also were represented, for three members of the American Numismatic Association were among those 28 guests. Farran Zerbe, past president of the ANA and former editor of *The Numismatist*, who was in charge of the Coin and Medal Department at the Exposition, struck piece No. 19. I. Leland Steinman, soon to be second vice-president of

the ANA, struck No. 20, and Fred T. Huddart struck No. 26. That same month these three men founded the Pacific Coast Numismatic Society. Fred Huddart was its first president and I. Leland Steinman its first secretary-treasurer. Farran Zerbe, its founder, later became the second president of the PCNS.

As is usual, there was considerable criticism about these new coins by the press and critics. Probably the chief complaint was the design. "Why," they asked, "was the design a classical one when the events for which the pieces were issued were so purely modern and American?" Let's consider this design. It shows a helmeted head of Minerva, a favorite Roman goddess, facing to left, a shield at her left shoulder inscribed in Roman numerals MCMXV or 1915. Around this, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA FIFTY DOLLARS; in the eight angles are eight dolphins. It was submitted by Robert Aitken, famous designer and engraver of New York.

Consider his possible reasons for this design. First of all, the piece was to commemorate two occasions mentioned before — the completion of the Panama Canal, opening of new trade routes, and the building of the great western part of the United States. Therefore, I believe he chose Minerva as the central design chiefly because of her many attributes. She was goddess of wisdom, skill, war, the arts, spinning, weaving, agriculture, horticulture, and contemplation. On the reverse the central design is that of an owl, symbol of wisdom and sacred symbol of Minerva. Now notice how he ties the whole together by using on the obverse the eight dolphins to convey the idea of the uninterrupted water route made possible by the Panama Canal, and by perching the owl on the branch of western pine, on the reverse, thereby alluding to the resources of the great West.

Probably the second most important complaint was that such a high premium was charged for these

pieces, for they initially were sold for \$100 each. This possibly accounted to a great extent for the fact that only about half of the 3000 pieces of both round and octagonal pieces issued were sold, and many of these were released at face in the last few days of the Exposition, rather than returned to the mint for melting.

The third complaint was that both round and octagonal pieces bore the same design. This, too, in all likelihood contributed to the failure to sell more of them, as many were reluctant to buy two pieces so nearly alike and at such premiums.

The octagon pieces went on sale in June, but the round ones were not struck until sometime in July.

For the quarter-eagle a design was prepared by a Miss Longman of New York City. Because of illness, she was unable to finish in time, so the



work fell upon our own mint designers, Charles E. Barber and G. T. Morgan. This piece, although classical in design, was received enthusiastically. On the obverse is Columbia, carrying a caduceus and riding on a hippocampus which is plunging to left, symbolically inviting the nations of the world to use the new waterway. On the reverse is an eagle on a standard in an attitude of watchful warning, as if to say, "We are prepared to protect our own." You will remember that Europe at this time already was engaged in World War I, and perhaps this was to serve as a warning to all who coveted anything American. Of these pieces, 10,000 were struck but only something over 6000 sold. The rest were returned for melting.

The gold dollar was the work of Charles Keck, also of New York. It was truly modern and American and called a "bold piece of work." Here on the obverse we find the head of a laborer wearing a peaked cap, this in honor of the working men whose work made the Canal a reality. The reverse shows two dolphins circling,

symbolic of the meeting of two oceans. There were 25,000 of these minted and all were sold.



Some say the half dollar of this set is not as graceful or as satisfying as the others. To me it not only is the most beautiful but the most meaningful and the most expressive of the events commemorated. The obverse shows Columbia scattering flowers of welcome upon the Pacific Ocean as she invites all nations to use the facilities of San Francisco Bay. Beyond her the sun is setting and casting its rays on the Golden Gate. Behind her is a nude youth with a cornucopia, symbolic of the young West, its boundless resources and its unlimited possibilities.

The reverse shows a shield of the United States surmounted by an eagle with its wings spread and extended as if conscious of its power and proud of all it represents. To the left is a branch of oak symbolic of stability, and to the right an olive branch, symbolic of peace. This is again the work of Charles E. Barber and G. T. Morgan of the Philadelphia Mint. Of the 60,000 struck, more than half (nearly 33,000) were unsold and were returned to be melted. These Panama Pacific commemorative coins are all outstanding pieces of work and should be an inspiration to those who take the time to understand all they seek to relate in the language of the designer.

The greatest of all expositions long since has passed into history, but the record it left in these pieces will continue to live and to inspire those who come after us for many, many generations to come. But these pieces tell only of the beginnings of the history of this great state; its progress is engraved on others of these milestones in history. In 1925 California celebrated its 75th Jubilee of Statehood and had a half dollar issued to commemorate the event. It was designed by one of our own Californians, Jo Mora of Carmel. The obverse shows a prospector kneeling in the act of panning gold, the discovery of which was responsible for

the initial phenomenal growth of the state. The reverse shows a grizzly bear, which is the state's emblem as well as a symbol of the rich natural resources of this great state.

In 1935 and 1936 another great Exposition was held in California—the California Pacific Exposition at

You may ask what possible connection has Minerva with this event? Here is my interpretation: Here again the artist personifies California by Minerva, the lady of so many attributes. The ship and the miner represent periods of California's history, and the cornucopia its re-



San Diego. To commemorate the occasion, a half dollar was issued. Here again is a design by Robert Aitken, and here again is his goddess Minerva. This time she is seated, holding a spear with her right

sources. The shield and head of Medusa can only refer to a time when law and order was only a phrase, for none existed until the people arose in their anger and stamped out lawlessness. The reverse, of course,



hand and her shield with her left. The California bear is at her right side. On the shield is the head of Medusa, a gorgon which she slew to protect the other gods of ancient times, and above the head is California's motto, EUREKA. In the field at her right are two things alluding to the history of California — a sailing ship near her right elbow and a miner with pickaxe below, near the bear. At her left knee a cornucopia spills out on the ground.

refers to the Exposition itself by portraying a group of the outstanding buildings.

Of this piece there were two dates and two mints, 1935S and 1936D. Of a total of the more than 430,000 of both of these pieces minted, only slightly more than 100,000 were sold, the rest being returned and melted.

The last of the California commemoratives, at least up to this present time (we hope there will be others), was issued in 1936 — the San Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge

half dollar. Here a great engineering feat was celebrated with the opening of this great bridge. The piece was designed by a young San Francisco



artist, Jacques Schnier. Here the obverse shows the California grizzly bear, and that was the object of the greatest criticism against this piece. It was felt that something symbolic of Liberty should have adorned the obverse, for Monarch II, a bear which had been the model for this piece, had spent most of its life in a cage as a public exhibit. The reverse shows the San Francisco end of the Bay Bridge, the famous Ferry Building, and to the left two ships about to pass under the bridge. Yerba Buena Island and the east bay hills appear in the distance.

In the understanding of the artist's designs of these pieces commemorating events in the history of this great state, we are treated to a beautiful panorama of its discovery, growth and progress. And as our great bridges and highways rise in step with progress and more and more people cross California's borders and settle down to call it home, we can understand the expression attributed to Archimedes and adopted as our state motto -- EUREKA, "I have found it."

* * *

Half dollar illustrations enlarged to 1 1/4 times actual size; \$2 1/2 gold piece enlarged 2:1. Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea.

HAS CALIFORNIA'S FIRST ATTEMPT AT PAPER MONEY BEEN REVEALED?

By FRED R. MARCKHOFF, Elgin, Illinois

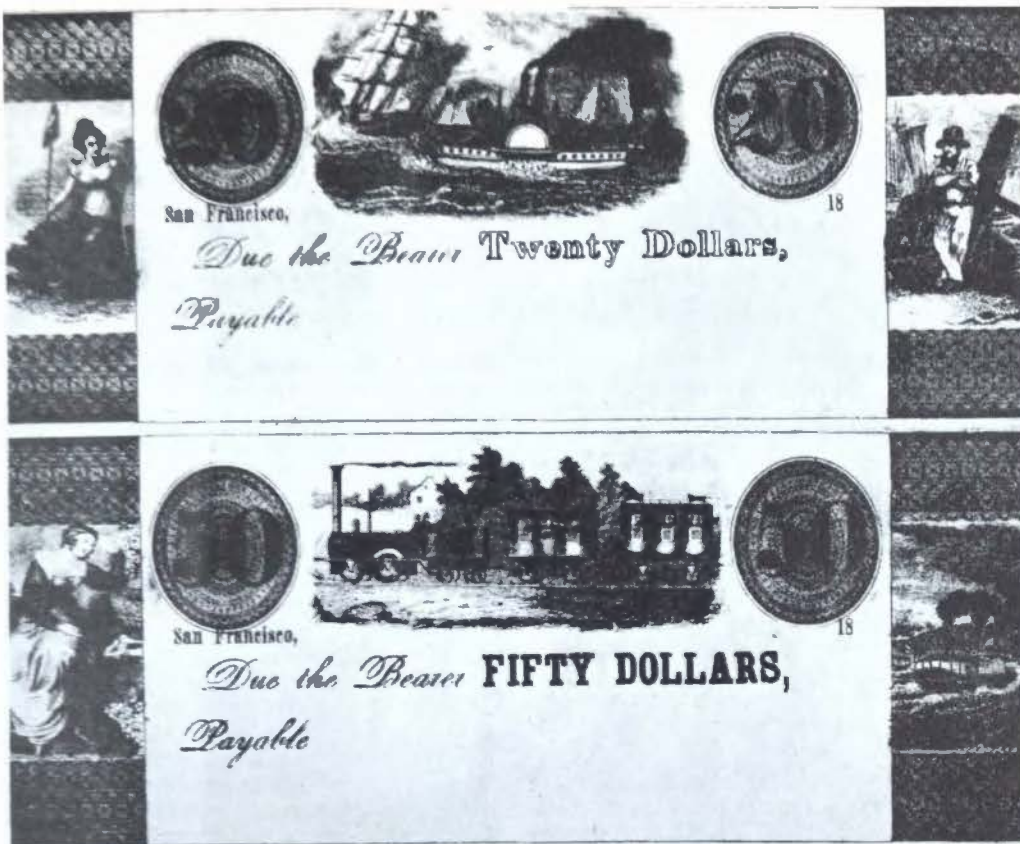
What might prove to be the first attempt at paper money usage in California has recently come to light. Unfortunately the point may never be provable unless a fully signed and dated specimen turns up.

However, to an experienced collector of obsolete notes, each note tells a story. The story of this uncut sheet, particularly in regard to its being issued prior to the Miners' Bank note issue of March 1, 1849, is as follows:

It could not have originated prior to July, 1847, when the name of the town Yerba Buena was changed to San Francisco. Actually, the size of the denominations on the notes would in themselves indicate origin after the discovery of gold in 1848, inasmuch as there was no need for these high denominations previous to that event.

Notes identical to those illustrated exist in a 3 note uncut sheet form, on an eastern bank. Denominations, however, were \$1—\$1—\$2, which would indicate this San Francisco sheet came as a \$20—\$20—\$50 issue, as the identical vignettes on the top two notes of the sheet would in each case require their denominations to be alike also.

In tracing clues provided by features on the notes, the most important is the vignette signed "P. Maverick." For this reveals its creation around the early 1820s, as Maverick was one of the earliest engravers. This very early origin of the vignettes, however, does not pertain to the age of the note itself. The Maverick and other early vignettes were used on many notes through the



1830s. But, by the early 1840s newer vignettes of improved technique and design had replaced them. The original engraver still could sell his stock of notes bearing these early vignettes to stationers or small printing firms in quantity for resale. The identifying imprint of the engraving company had been removed and the notes had no denominational numerals.

Small firms, merchants, etc., purchased these note "blanks" in any quantity desired to provide themselves with circulating scrip. The denomination and name of city, etc., were added by the local printer if desired. No regulation forbidding such practices existed in those days to be sure.

The foregoing reveals the early origin of this San Francisco uncut sheet. All evidence points to it being brought to California by a gold-seeking printer or merchant from the east, as part of his unused portion of note "blanks" purchased and partially used as much as ten years before. This is a logical conclusion in view of the fact that their purchase would have been difficult by the very late 1840s.

The money shortage in California evidently brought out these "blanks"

from some trunk without much delay. The word "San Francisco" and the denominational numerals were added. Their crudeness in comparison to the printing of the vignettes indicates lack of facilities and experience in this type of work. One of the several private presses or that of the newspaper no doubt performed this service in San Francisco. Time and expense would have prohibited a trip east for these few words.

The favorable case for these notes being earlier in usage than those of the Miners' Bank rests not only on the long fourteen month period between discovery of gold and the March, 1849, date on the Miners' Bank notes, but also on the premise that the small additional printing this uncut sheet required could have been done in a few days and the notes thus made available for circulation immediately afterward, at any time within that fourteen month period.

Possibly some day a dated note of this or some other similar issue will be found to confirm the belief that there was issuance of currency in California before the March 1, 1849, date of the Miners' Bank notes, fourteen months after the discovery of gold by James Marshall.

Norton I of California

By FRED R. MARCKHOFF, Elgin, Ill.

Any story of the now legendary "Emperor Norton" is almost like the story of two men, two lives—Joshua A. Norton, the merchant, and Emperor Norton I, the self-appointed monarch—each story completely different, yet each the same, truly a paradox.

Historically, this was the attempt of a grain merchant, already worth a quarter of a million dollars, to corner the rice market and become a millionaire. Complete failure to do so left this man not only virtually penniless, but also partially deranged in mind as well.

Numismatically, there was created the now famous and very scarce "Emperor Norton Scrip." These were used in lieu of cash payments by the "Emperor" for small debts incurred by him. Actually, they were the gratuitous and spontaneous evidences of affection and responsibility felt not only by the firms printing the scrip gratis, but by the creditors of "His Majesty" as well, in accepting same as payment.

But let us start at the beginning. Joshua Abraham Norton was born in London, England, in 1818, the son of John and Sarah Norton. In 1820 the parents and two small sons, Joshua and Lewis, were among some 4000 British colonists who left England to settle at the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa.

John Norton established a farm at Grahamstown and worked it until 1838. In that year he bought into a ship chandlery and general merchandising store at Cape Town. He also became a local agent for shipping interests. Joshua, of course, worked for his father, but at the age of 22 decided to go into business for himself at Algoa Bay. This enterprise was short-lived, however, failing in 1844.

In August, 1848, the father, now a widower, died, leaving his business in bankruptcy. Joshua, left with not one but two insolvent firms on his hands, floundered uncertainly for some

months, not knowing which way to turn.

Then it happened. Newspaper accounts of the discovery of gold in California reached South Africa in 1849. Probably no one read of this event with more interest than did Joshua Norton. It must have seemed like the chance of a lifetime and he made up his mind quickly.

After a stormy 101-day trip, via Rio de Janeiro, South America, Joshua arrived at San Francisco on Friday, Nov. 23, 1849. His boat, believed to be the *Franzeska*, landed alongside hundreds of deserted ships, forsaken by passengers and crews alike in their mad rush to the gold fields.

I. JOSHUA NORTON—MERCHANT

Although his early arrival made Joshua a "49er," unlike almost all of the others, he did not stake himself out and head for the mines. Instead, he delved into the prospects of going into business.

His shrewd mind had noted the high prices at which food and merchandise were sold, and the difficulty involved in procuring them through importing each and every one. Even the scarcity of storage space was a factor in itself. It made necessary a hasty disposal of goods by auction immediately upon arrival. The price was always governed by the quantity of the product available and this varied considerably.

All of the observations dictated Joshua's next decision—to set himself up as a commission merchant. By buying and selling these hard-to-get commodities at the right time, he realized the high commissions that could be made.

Joshua promptly rented a small office at 242 Montgomery St., in a busy block of merchants, auctioneers and shipping agents. He had brought along enough money to cover initial expenses of this venture, so his main concern was the success of the business itself.



NORTON I

Emperor of the United States and Protector of Mexico

Photograph by Bradley & Rulofson, 429 Montgomery St., San Francisco

Evidently Joshua soon felt the need of more cash than he had, however, for he formed a partnership with another merchant, one Peter Robertson, under the name of "Joshua Norton & Company," with references in London, Rio de Janeiro and Boston.

The two men began speculating in various commodities in large scale amounts. Coal was handled by the ton, brick by the thousand, flour by the hundreds of sacks, and beef by the tierce. These and many other goods were bought as cheaply as possible, then sold for all the market would bring. A "killing" in numerous different commodities at the same time was not uncommon.

This merchandising "gold mine" continued unabated until May 3-4, 1851, when 18 San Francisco city blocks went up in fire and smoke, including the entire business district and almost 2000 houses. Twenty lives were lost and \$12 million in damages was sustained.

Joshua's business was among those destroyed. Until a new building could be built, he and his partner ran their business from a post office box "location," with most of the work done with the blue sky for a roof.

By the end of July, 1851, Norton & Co. had re-established itself in a permanently constructed building between Washington and Jackson Sts., one block south of its former location.

The partnership was terminated in late 1851, however, and Joshua again

became sole owner. Whether or not this termination was due to a disagreement as to the type of business that should be engaged in is not known, but once on his own, Joshua embarked on a new phase of commission buying. This consisted of purchasing cargoes from consignees long before the vessels were due in port. He no longer was content to buy cargoes upon their arrival in port.

While this new practice entailed an even greater control over a commodity, it likewise increased the market risk, inasmuch as larger volumes and sums were involved. Now, Joshua's main traffic was in Chinese, Peruvian and Carolina rice, Chilean flour, beans and barley, English coal, Chinese teas, potatoes, liquors, molasses and Manila and Java coffee.

His other activities included selling California hides on consignment to his London representatives, buying and selling shares in Sierra mining and fluming companies and speculating in real estate. In November, 1852, he built the first rice mill on the Pacific Coast.

On the social side, Joshua had become a naturalized citizen and was very active in the newly formed Masonic Lodge in 1852. Probably his social and financial stature were never higher than at this period. Had he not become one of San Francisco's most prominent and successful merchants?

But 1852 also was the turning point in Joshua's career, for certain events



TYPE I. FIVE DOLLARS. JANUARY 25, 1871

transpired in that year which were to lead to his downfall.

Rice was perhaps the largest single food consumed in California in the 1850s, due to the abundance of Chinese workers. During the summer and autumn of 1852 the price of this commodity had risen to astounding heights. From four cents a pound in June, it had risen to 32 cents by September. While at this peak price, ships arrived with huge rice cargoes and soon the market returned to normal. But by December, 1852, the supply again was short. This may have been due partially to the merchants not offering what they did have on the open market, in view of published newspaper reports that further exporting of Chinese rice had been prohibited.

Joshua's interest in rice was mounting by the minute as he watched these market reports and events. A novel idea was working in his mind. If he could buy up all the available rice until a monopoly on it was reached, then hold it until the price had again risen up to or beyond its recent high level, he could sell all of it at an exorbitant figure and become a millionaire almost over night.

With this in mind he took on another partner, wealthy William Sim. After the decision was made to corner the rice market, several other merchants joined the "combine" as it was called, due to the large amount of cash needed to consummate the deal. By mid-December, 1852, the group was ready.

On Dec. 22, 1852, the vessel "Glyde" arrived from South America with 200,000 pounds of rice. Ship and cargo belonged to three Peruvian brothers named Ruiz, and the rice was being consigned to their San Francisco agent, Godeffroy, Sillem & Co. Joshua and his partner, Sim, contacted this firm and agreed to buy the entire cargo. A contract was drawn up on Dec. 22, 1852, for purchase of all the rice at 12½ cents per pound. But the contract was signed only by "J. Norton & Co.," which made it not binding on any of the other associated speculators; only on the Norton Company.

Rice cargoes of other ships evidently were bought at about the same time. Then suddenly the purchases stopped. The combine evidently had run out of money. The "Siren" came in with 218 rice barrels,

the "Merceditas" with 2000 bags, the "Charles Mallory" with 40 barrels of the commodity and the "Dragon" with 250,000 pounds. Never had so much rice arrived in such a short period of time.

The rice market was broken!

By Jan. 15, 1853, rice could bring only eight cents per pound and later it sold for as low as three cents per pound, if it could be sold at all.

Joshua's manipulations were a complete and dismal failure. What could he and his partner do to recoup their losses? After much debate they decided to void their contract, alleging the rice was inferior to samples shown them. Ruiz Brothers had been paid only \$2000 on the contract and were unable to collect the remainder. They brought suit against the Norton Company for \$23,000, plus interest from Jan. 21, 1853, and also obtained an attachment causing the sheriff to take possession of the property.

After many delays the breach of contract verdict was decided in favor of Ruiz Brothers for \$24,399.18. Joshua, of course, appealed and in December, 1853, the State Supreme Court reversed the decision. In February 1854 the case again was tried by the District Court and this time Joshua's company was granted a non-suit verdict.

This time Ruiz Brothers appealed the decision and in October 1854 the Supreme Court held that the District Court had erred in granting a non-suit and reversed the latter's judgment. It was not until May 1855 that the suit finally was settled in the District Court. The jury's decision was that Ruiz Brothers should be awarded \$20,000 in damages.

This extended litigation and consequent loss drained heavily on Joshua's pocketbook and preyed on his mind. But bad as it was, this was only the beginning. Other troubles were on the way.

William Sim had left the partnership early in 1853. Joshua replaced him with Isaac N. Thorne, an attorney. Their advertisements read "Stock and Gold Dust Brokers." But this affiliation was of four months duration only. It was evident that the boom also had ended in gold dust and that there was little if any financial reward for those dealing in it.

In June 1854 Joshua was sued by a Norman Bugbee, a merchant, for an accounting of his assets, upon returning from an extended trip east in 1852. No court verdict is on record concerning the outcome, so evidently an out-of-court settlement was made. A. N. Byfield also sued Joshua in October 1854 over a \$600 promissory note plus interest, and won a judgment of \$728 and costs. Several suits that Joshua took to court to regain property taken from him to satisfy court judgments were unsuccessful.

All of these setbacks might have been overcome had business conditions remained prosperous. But the opposite had become true and formerly prosperous enterprises were fortunate to eke out bare existences. By 1855 only one out of every 10 merchants doing business in 1849 was still active.

With his cash assets gone and no lucrative business to engage in, Joshua had nothing left to turn to for relief. Creditors left him no choice; he filed his petition in bankruptcy, listing debts at \$55,811.73, assets at \$15,000, and losses at \$45,000. The assets subsequently were sold by the sheriff for benefit of the creditors. Thus ended the life of Joshua A. Norton—the Merchant.

II. EMPEROR NORTON I

Little is known of Joshua's activities in the first few years after bankruptcy. None of the later evidences of poverty, need for solicitations or change of character were apparent between 1856 and 1858. There is good reason to believe he lived off gold pieces or other coins he may have had stored up somewhere.

But the once shrewd and even brilliant merchant had lost something besides money since his darkest days. All the lawsuits, court trials, unfavorable verdicts, plus the loss of cash, property and business were more than Joshua's mind could take. His former complete mental stability had ebbed away. In its place had come feelings of unfair loss, unjust treatment and a severe loss of ego, all of which could be overcome only by assumption of a new character—that of an unquestioned, privileged personage. Such a person was Emperor Norton I.

This personality and character change was gradual. It would be impossible to say just when the new

character had fully developed, but if one had to pin point the full culmination of the transition, the date would be Sept. 17, 1859. For on this date there appeared in the **San Francisco Bulletin** in one of the news columns the following:

"At the peremptory request and desire of a large majority of the citizens of the United States, I, Joshua Norton, formerly of Algoa Bay, Cape of Good Hope, and now for the last nine years and ten months past of San Francisco, California, declare and proclaim myself Emperor of these United States, and in virtue of the authority thereby in me vested, do hereby order and direct the representatives of the different States of the Union to assemble in Musical Hall, of this city, on the first day of February, next, then and there to make such alterations in the existing laws of the Union as may ameliorate the evils under which the country is laboring, and thereby cause confidence to exist, both at home and abroad, in our stability and integrity.

Norton I

Emperor of the United States"

This was the first printed evidence of the new character Joshua had assumed. But evidently his new way of life already had made itself known to San Franciscans including the editor of the **Bulletin**, as no such publicity would have been given a newcomer or stranger. If it afforded readers of the newspaper a few laughs, it also helped to insure and increase the tolerance, understanding and good will of the general public for Joshua.

A second newspaper pronouncement appeared in the Oct. 12, 1859, issue of the **Bulletin**, this one denouncing certain state governors and courts. Others followed at more or less frequent intervals. Each dealt with existing evils as Joshua now saw them and how his imaginary empire would improve and change conditions.

It is on record that Joshua donned his now familiar uniform for the first time on March 18, 1860. His headpiece was a general's cap, bound with red lace; his coat that of an army officer; his trousers and boots those of a navy man—all gifts of outmoded vintage. Later his aged military uniform was replaced gratis by the local army post with newer uniforms, these with shining brass buttons and gold braid epaulets. A stranger in

town would have assumed that Joshua was a retired military hero. The general's hat that had been worn prior to the mid-1860s was replaced by a tall white beaver hat, decorated with a jaunty plume, and this style persisted for the rest of his days. The plumed hat, the military uniform, the walking stick, and two dogs "Bummer" and "Lazarus" trailing behind were the unmistakable earmarks of California's best known character for several generations.

Over the years Joshua lived in a single room at the Eureka Lodging House, 624 Commercial St., a cheap hotel of that era. He paid his rent every night before retiring. His daily routine was a simple one. Every morning he would stop in to see an old friend in a nearby room. After that he would visit one of a number of restaurants or lunch counters. Most of the day was spent walking, with the rests in between becoming more frequent and longer as he became older. His other meal or meals also were eaten in public restaurants, and by sundown his day of activity was over.

Joshua died while walking on the streets on Jan. 8, 1880, age about 62. In his pockets were found several coins—three dollars in silver, a \$2½ gold piece, a franc piece of 1828, also a certificate for 98,200 shares of stock in a worthless mine, several bonds of the "Empire," and a number of other "Imperial" documents.

The San Francisco *Alta* stated, "His eccentricities had become a part of the city's history; they had made him world famous." Yes, San Francisco's most celebrated living link to the Gold Rush Days of '49 was gone.

III. THE IMPERIAL SCRIP

The story persists that William Lane Booker, British consul for San Francisco, paid all of Joshua's expenses for at least several years. When Booker withdrew his support others took up the slack, most of them being Joshua's former business associates. It seems almost self evident that this support lasted until the old friends began passing away in the early 1870s, for it was then that the first Norton scrip made its appearance.

Joshua called these issues "Bonds of the Empire." He signed, dated and serially numbered them himself. The two printers of record were Cuddy & Hughes and the Charles A. Murdock & Co., although the latter's name never appears on any known note.

While not every store accepted the Imperial Scrip, some did, and inasmuch as Joshua's needs were simple, he confined himself to the small number of friendly places whose services he needed—mainly eating houses.

In fact, from data located for this article, it would appear that Joshua did not use more than an average of one piece (or perhaps just a fraction more) per day. This is contrary to prior statements and surmises by writers, suggesting that this scrip was used at every turn and in great profusion by the "Emperor."

From the collections of the California Historical Society, Ralph Mitchell, the writer, and newspaper illustrations, it has become possible for the first time to tell fairly accurately how many Joshua actually did use.

A study of the following tables will reveal how this was done:

DENOMINATION	DATE OF NOTE	SERIAL NUMBERS	
50 Cents	Nov. 19, 1875	1803	
50 Cents	March 11, 1876	1911	
APPROX. NO. OF DAYS	112	— 108	Serial Numbers Used (1911 Minus 1803)

DENOMINATION	DATE OF NOTE	SERIAL NUMBERS	
50 Cents	Jan. 2, 1878	2435	
50 Cents	Jan. 5, 1878	2441	
50 Cents	July 10, 1878	2682	
APPROX. NO. OF DAYS	4	— 6	Serial Numbers Used (2441 Minus 2435)
	188	— 147	Serial Numbers Used (2682 Minus 2435)

Unfortunately, no figures of comparison are available for any denomination other than 50 cents. However, this was Joshua's mainly used denomination.

In the first table the average usage is an almost even one note per day. Since both serial numbers are chance numbers of each date, there of course could be other numbers of the same date, both lower and higher. This makes any figure taken from the table only an approximation, but inasmuch as results from both tables are not far apart for the two different years of issue, it is believed a reliable pattern of one note per day, or slightly over, has been established. Any small inaccuracy of the tables would be on the conservative side, so a few additional notes can safely be added in each case.

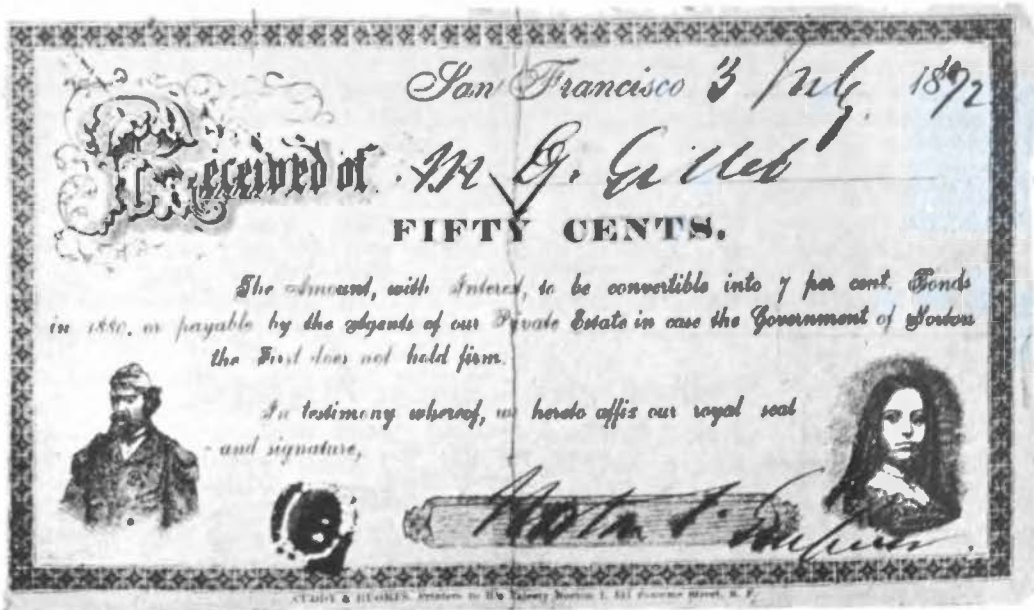
The only variation from this pattern came in the \$10 denomination of Nov. 20, 1879 date, where serial numbers 1 and 6 are both known. Whether this came from just the exuberance of passing out a first day's issue amongst friends, or from Joshua's settling up old debts upon receipt of new funds, is not known. Until proof to the contrary is available, it is believed the heavy early usage of this issue was only very temporary. It may have had something to do with a noticeable decline in Joshua's health from pure sympathy, as he died less than two months later.

Some stores posted the Norton scrip on their front windows, as proof of Joshua's patronage as well as a form of advertising.

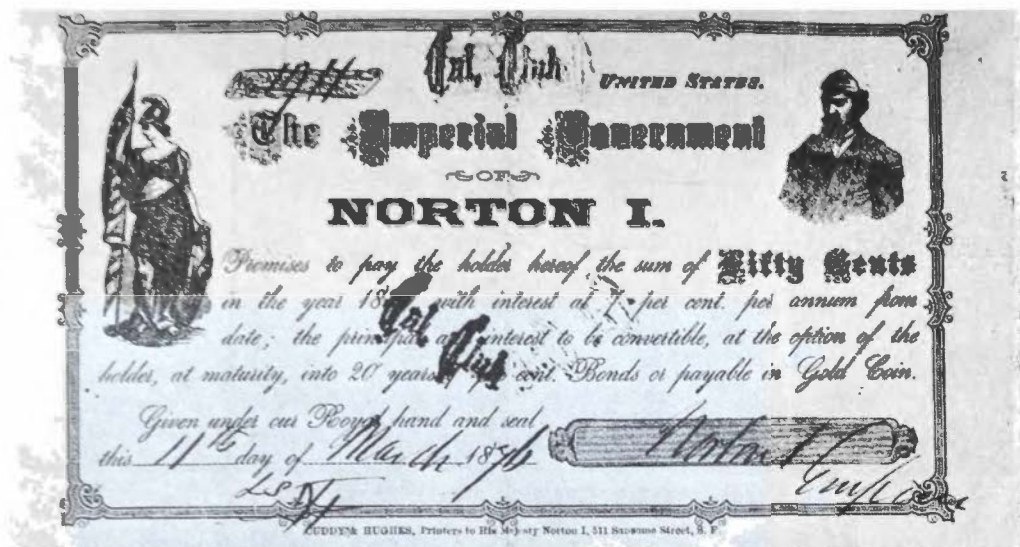
Joshua's most frustrating experience with his Imperial Scrip no doubt came with his Chinese laundryman, who would not accept it under any circumstances. He demanded hard coin instead. For a time this state of affairs threatened to end forever the friendly relations between the "Emperor" and one of his subjects. But Joshua's landlord solved the dilemma by paying the laundryman himself in cash, then adding the amount to Joshua's bill.

Another untoward incident in respect to the scrip occurred when several of his notes marked "payable in 1880, with 7% interest" were presented for payment as 1880 drew near, the whole idea being a practical joke no doubt. This worried Joshua for he had no specie available for redemption. But he finally hit upon the idea of having a new issue printed, this one payable in 1890. These he offered in exchange for the 1880 Series, giving an extra note as well, this for the accrued interest mentioned on the notes but not forthcoming. His impish subjects accepted the expedient with good graces and perhaps a realization that their "Emperor" was not so dumb after all.

It is not generally known, but Joshua came close to receiving offi-



TYPE 2. FIFTY CENTS. JULY 3, 1872



TYPE 3. FIFTY CENTS. MARCH 11, 1876

cial relief from his financial plight. For in the California State Assembly meeting of Jan. 18, 1872, Section I of a four-section ordinance that was up for passage read as follows:

The sum of Two Hundred and Fifty Dollars per month is hereby appropriated out of any funds in the State Treasury not otherwise appropriated for the relief of Emperor Norton the First; the warrants to be drawn on the first of each month succeeding the passage of this bill, for the next two years.

Despite strong sentiment for this bill, it was defeated because numerous other names were added to it before it could be brought to a vote, thus killing any chance Joshua might have had for relief from this quarter.

A general type and chronological listing of Emperor Norton notes known to the writer are as follows:

GENERAL TYPE No. 1

\$5.00

Dated Jan. 25, 1871. Serial No. 3. 7% Interest. Cuddy & Hughes, Printers. Portrait of Norton at top center.

GENERAL TYPE No. 2

50 Cents

Dated June 5, 1872. No serial number. 7% Interest. Cuddy & Hughes, Printers. Portrait of Norton at lower left. Female head at lower right. Printed in red ink. "Received of M. G. Gillet" handwritten in pen and ink.

50 Cents

Dated July 3, 1872. No serial number. 7% Interest. Cuddy & Hughes, Print-

ers. Portrait of Norton at lower left. Female head at lower right. Printed in red ink. "Received of R. G. Donnelly." (Identical in printing with above note.)

GENERAL TYPE No. 3

50 Cents

Dated Nov. 19, 1875. Serial No. 1803. 7% Interest. Cuddy & Hughes, Printers. Portrait of Norton at upper right. Standing female with flag at left.

50 Cents

Dated Mar. 11, 1876. Serial No. 1911. 7% Interest. Cuddy & Hughes, Printers. Portrait of Norton at upper right. Standing female with flag at left. (Identical in printing with above note.)

GENERAL TYPE No. 4

50 Cents

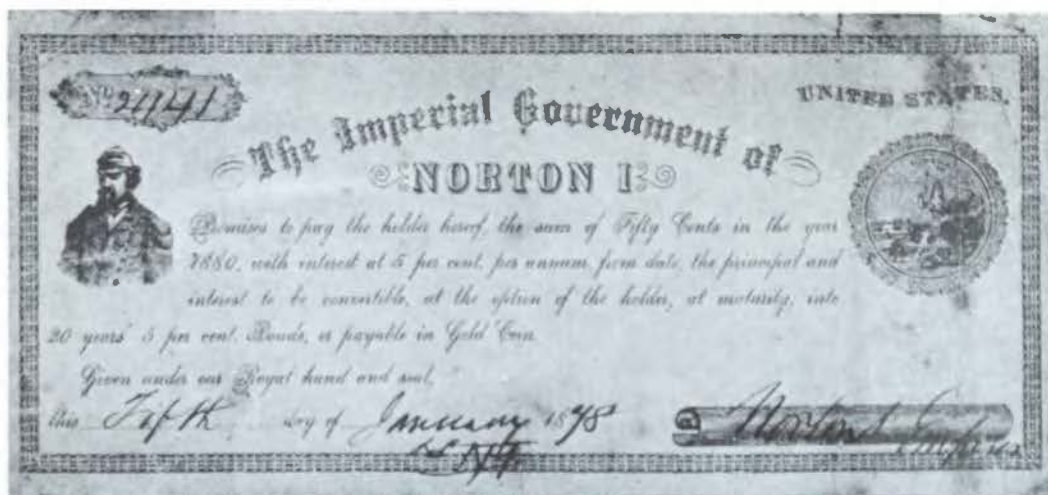
Dated Jan. 2, 1878. Serial No. 2435. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right.

50 Cents

Dated Jan. 5, 1878. Serial No. 2441. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right. (Identical in printing with above note.)

50 Cents

Dated Feb. 18, 1878. Serial No. 2511. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right. (Identical in printing with above note.)



TYPE 4. FIFTY CENTS. JANUARY 5, 1878

50 Cents

Dated May 27, 1878. Serial No. 2629. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right. (Identical in printing with above note.)

50 Cents

Dated July 10, 1878. Serial No. 2682. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right. (Identical in printing with above note.)

\$10.00

Dated Nov. 20, 1879. Serial No. 1. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right.

\$10.00

Dated Nov. 20, 1879. Serial No. 6. 5% Interest. No printer's imprint. Portrait of Norton at left. California seal at right. (Identical in printing with above note.)

**TYPE NUMBER UNKNOWN
(Believed To Be No. 4)**

50 Cents

Dated Jan. 8, 1880. Serial No. 3042. 4% Interest. Redeemable in 1890, not the usual 1880. No further description available. Dated same day Joshua died; only a few issued.

This is the first listing of Norton notes perhaps made and should not be regarded as complete either for type, denomination or date of issue, and it is not represented as such herewith. Existence of the \$5 and \$10 denominations has not been generally known, however. Much is still unknown, but at this stage of our knowledge we do know that there were at least four different general types. There appear to be rather numerous varieties, especially of the later dated notes.

If Joshua could have placed the



TYPE 4. TEN DOLLARS. NOVEMBER 20, 1879

same value on each note that it has today in premium value he could have lived a life of luxury. But then he would not have had the experience of being an "Emperor," there would not have been any Imperial

Scrip, and this article could not have been written.

Seriously, it is the hope of the writer that a little more knowledge has been gained of Joshua's Imperial Scrip by presentation of this work.

Unpublished California Item

By RICHARD A. WEBB

An interesting trial piece of what might be a hitherto unpublished California Pioneer coin has been sent to the writer by Syl C. Tully Jr., a resident of San Jose and a member of the Todo Dinero Numismatic Assn. of that City.

This trial piece has been struck over a U.S. large copper cent dated 1849. The obverse has a large Roman numeral "X" in the center with an inscription around the border. Unfortunately, only part of the inscription "MINING COMPANY" is legible. The reverse, however, is well struck and shows an eagle in the center similar to the type depicted on U.S. ten-dollar gold pieces of the period. Above the eagle is the word "CALIFORNIA"; below the eagle is the word "GOLD".

Investigation to date has failed to bring forth either the firm name or the year of issue, or any other circumstances about the piece. Inasmuch as this trial piece was struck over an 1849 cent that had apparently been in circulation, it was probably struck sometime after 1851. The workmanship on the eagle compares favorably with other work done by Albert Kuner, early San

Francisco coin die engraver.

As far as is known today, none of the pioneer coinages were issued by mining companies here in California. It would appear that the Cincinnati Mining and Trading Co. did not actually strike any coins in California, although, of course, pieces exist today with their imprint, presumably struck in the East. After arriving in California, this firm dropped the words "and Trading" from their name and continued to operate for some years as the Cincinnati Mining Co. dealing in gold stocks. In consequence there is a possibility that this trial piece could have been struck by the reconstituted Cincinnati Mining Co. Stephen A. Wright, president of the Miners' Bank of San Francisco in 1849, continued on in the mining business in the Mother Lode country and organized various mining companies during the period 1850-1885. Inasmuch as Wright was already "coin minded" through issuing his Miners' Bank ten dollar gold piece in 1849, this trial piece might have its origin with one of Wright's gold mining companies.

—PCNS Bulletin, December 1948

Wells Fargo Bank

By DON T. THRALL, Berkeley

On March 18, 1852, Henry Wells, William G. Fargo, John Butterfield and others gathered at the Astor Hotel in New York City and formed the firm of Wells, Fargo & Co. The firm was organized to conduct an express and banking business in California, which in time was to spread as far east as Salt Lake City, excluding the New York City office.

The banking portion of the business consisted at first of the purchase and sale of gold, bullion and bills of exchange. The new firm sent to San Francisco Samuel P. Carter, who arrived on the S.S. Oregon June 27, 1852, to set up, manage and operate the express department, and Reuben W. Washburn, who arrived July 11, 1852, on the Tennessee to set up and operate the banking department. On July 1, 1852, the new firm opened for business at 114 Montgomery St., San Francisco.

The new firm of Wells, Fargo & Co. was starting a business in competition with other already well-established express and banking firms. Its principal rivals were Adams Express Co. and Page Bacon & Co., bankers. Within two years, Wells Fargo had offices established throughout Northern California. While most of the offices established were primarily express offices, they also operated as agencies for the banking department. Branches of the banking department were established in Virginia City, Carson City, Salt Lake City, Portland and New York City.

On Feb. 23, 1855, because of the failure of their parent companies in St. Louis, Page Bacon & Co. and Adams & Co. failed. Failure of these two leading bankers of the Pacific Coast precipitated runs on the other express and banking companies of the area. The express companies in California during the gold rush days were more or less forced into the banking business. They were the only firms equipped with safes where gold and similar valuables were stored awaiting shipment. Because of these safes, they began accepting deposits for safekeeping and gradu-

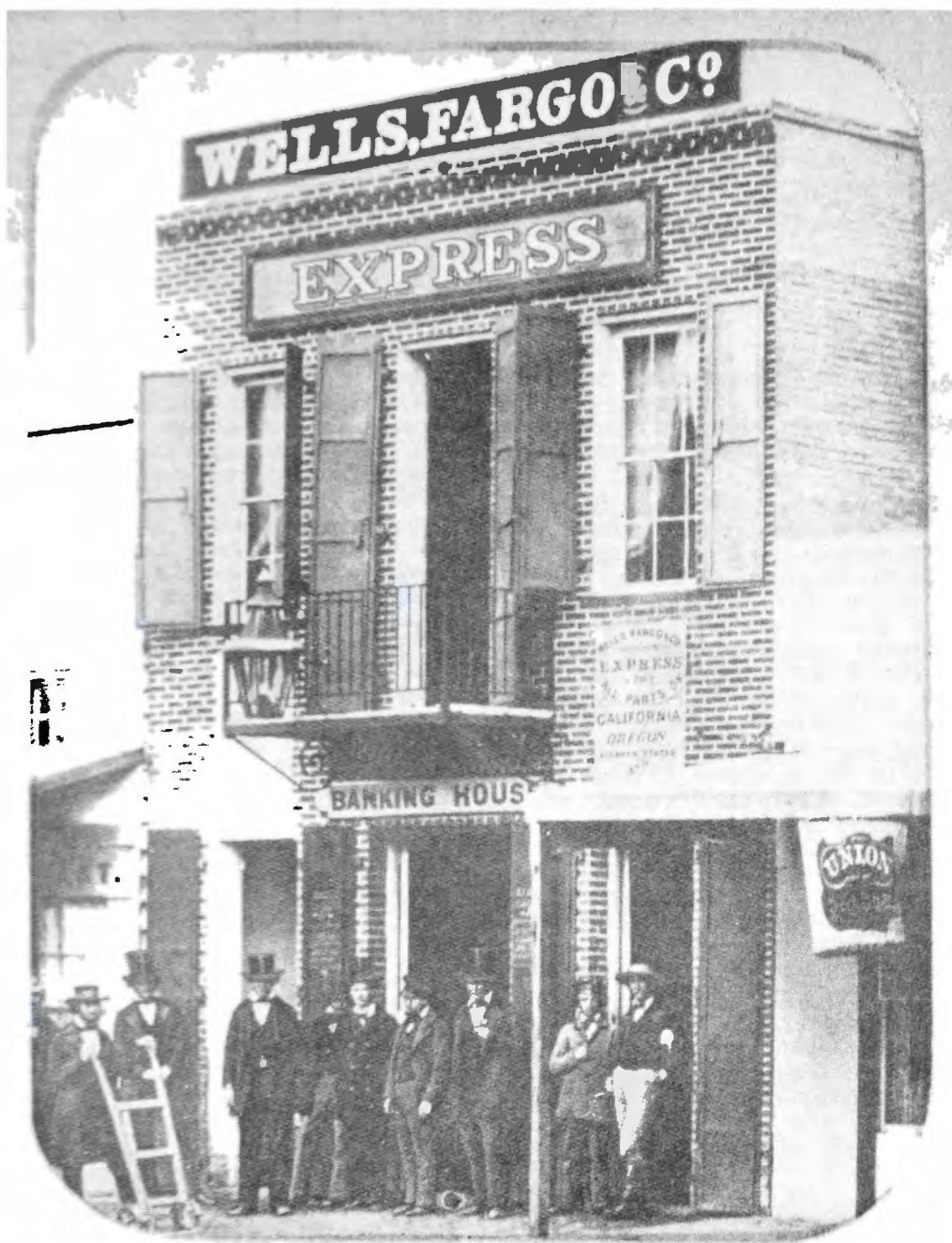
ally got into the business of lending money and conducting general banking businesses. Many of the smaller companies were dragged down by the failure of the two important houses. Wells Fargo managed to weather the crisis and emerged as the new leader in the express and banking field. From the time of the firm's founding until 1876, the express and banking departments were carried on under the same roof, at which time they separated, each occupying its own quarters. The bank moved to the corner of Sansome and California Streets and the express company to Sansome and Halleck Streets.

The San Francisco Clearing House Assn. was organized and started operations on Feb. 4, 1876, with 15 charter members. Wells Fargo & Co. was assigned No. 15. The San Francisco Clearing House was the first such organization formed in California.

On Oct. 4, 1875, the Big Four of the Comstock, James G. Fair, William S. O'Brien, John W. McKay and James C. Flood, opened the doors of the Nevada Bank to the public. It had a paid-up capital of \$5,000,000, an unusually high figure for those days. The founders named their bank after the state which had built up their fortunes. Branches of this bank were established in Virginia City and New York City. The Nevada Bank joined the Clearing House Assn. as No. 16 on June 30, 1877.

In 1890, I.W. Hellman and his associates purchased control of the Nevada Bank and assumed active control, with Hellman as president. Under his direction, the bank prospered. In 1898, the bank took out a national charter, becoming the Nevada National Bank. The Nevada National Bank assumed No. 16 on Jan. 5, 1898. The Nevada National Bank issued national currency under the then existing national banking laws.

In the meantime the Wells Fargo & Co. Bank continued to prosper. To commemorate the 50th anniver-



The first Wells Fargo Bank, as it appeared in 1852. The illustration is from a daguerreotype in the bank's historical collection. Organized March 18, 1852, Wells Fargo & Co. opened for business July 1, 1852, at 114 Montgomery St., San Francisco. The firm was organized to conduct an express and banking business in California.



An early check on the Virginia City branch.

sary of its founding, the firm had a silver medal struck. This medal was presented on March 18, 1902, to each employee with one year or more of service.

Sometime before 1905 all branches of the Wells, Fargo & Co. Bank had been closed or otherwise disposed of, with the exception of the one in New York City. The branches in Virginia City and Carson City were closed. The Salt Lake City branch was sold to the Walker brothers of that city, who added it to their already successful banking institution.

The branch in Portland, Ore., was sold to the powerful United States National Bank of Portland, which for years after proudly advertised that it was the successor to the Wells Fargo Bank. The New York office was sold during the latter part of 1905 to the National Park Bank, which later was merged with the Chase National Bank—today's Chase Manhattan Bank.

In January 1905, the long-anticipated merger of the Nevada National Bank and Wells, Fargo & Co. finally was consummated. Serious thought had been given to closing the banking department of Wells Fargo & Co. prior to this time, but there were so many protests to this idea that it was dropped. Prior to the merger, Wells Fargo Bank showed a capital of \$16,000,000 and deposits of only \$11,000,000.

In order to reduce its capital and surplus accounts before the merger, the Nevada Bank paid surplus funds in both accounts to the stockholders in the form of dividends. The Wells Fargo Bank adjusted its accounts by crediting the surplus moneys to the express department. When the new Wells Fargo Nevada National Bank

opened, it did so with a capital stock of \$9,000,000 and a surplus of \$3,500,000. This bank also issued national currency under the provisions of the national banking laws.

The Union Trust Co. of San Francisco was organized by I.W. Hellman and incorporated on Feb. 6, 1893. It was the first bank established by Hellman after he had taken over the Nevada Bank, and the first bona fide trust company in San Francisco. Prior to this, in 1881, another Union Trust Co. of San Francisco was founded, but it was in operation for only about a year before it was forced to close. There was no connection between these two companies. At the close of business on Dec. 31, 1923, the Union Trust Co. of San Francisco merged with Wells Fargo Nevada National Bank.

On Jan. 1, 1924, the new institution opened as Wells Fargo Bank & Union Trust Co. This new bank was incorporated with a capital stock of \$9,000,000 and a surplus and undivided profits of \$7,900,000. This large bank continued to prosper and grow in stature through the years. Until 1954, when it again started branching out, it was the largest bank west of Chicago operating in one city, having only one branch—and that being only two blocks up Market St. from the main office. On Dec. 20, 1954, the bank changed its corporate title to Wells Fargo Bank.

The first branching out by Wells Fargo was a merger with the First National Bank of Antioch, which took place on Oct. 1, 1954. Organization of the First National Bank of Antioch was started by the father and son team of John A. and Herbert A. West in 1910. The First National Bank and its associated Antioch Bank of Savings opened for business

On Jan. 2, 1911, with a total combined capital of \$50,000 — \$25,000 for each bank. Its principal correspondent bank since its opening was first Wells Fargo Nevada National Bank and then Wells Fargo Bank & Union Trust Co. Because of its conservative management, the bank was able to weather successfully the big depression of the '20s and the bank holiday in 1933. The merger with Wells Fargo gave the customers of the Antioch bank access to additional and expanded banking facilities.

The second bank to merge with Wells Fargo Bank was the First National Bank of San Mateo County. This bank was chartered as the Bank of San Mateo County in 1891. It was the first bank in San Mateo County and the first bank between San Francisco and San Jose. In 1903, the San Mateo County Savings Bank was formed as a dividend to the stockholders of the Bank of San Mateo County. In 1904 the Bank of San Mateo County took out a national charter under the new name, The First National Bank of San Mateo County. The San Mateo County Savings Bank changed its name in 1930 to the San Mateo

County Bank, moved to new quarters in Redwood City and opened a commercial department in addition to its savings department. The First National Bank of San Mateo County and the San Mateo County Bank merged in 1936, keeping the name of the former. The merger with Wells Fargo became effective on Sept. 30, 1955. At the time of the merger, the First National Bank had five offices in San Mateo County, all of which became offices of Wells Fargo Bank.

The next move was the establishment of new offices. The first of these was at San Carlos on May 26, 1956. The next was at South San Francisco on June 25, 1956. Another new office was opened in temporary quarters in Hayward on Jan. 28, 1957. At the time this is being written, another new branch is being planned in Hayward.

Wells Fargo Bank has been a leader in the banking field in the West since it opened its doors for business in 1852, more than 100 years ago. Today it continues to grow and expand on Montgomery Street, "Wall Street of the West", in San Francisco, financial center of the West.

UNLISTED CALIFORNIA 'SO-CALLED' DOLLAR

By JOHN R. REYNOLDS, Fresno

The medal pictured above was issued as souvenir of the statewide celebration held by the **NATIVE SONS OF THE GOLDEN WEST** on the 47th anniversary of admission of the State of California into the Union. This NSGW celebration was held in Santa Rosa, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday, Sept. 8, 9, 10, 1897.

NSGW had its start in San Francisco as a club of young men, ages 10 to 20, and first paraded in the Fourth of July celebration of 1869. By 1879 there were a number of parlors in the larger cities, and a grand parlor was formed, which held a statewide meeting and celebration once each year.

The selection of Santa Rosa, county seat of Sonoma County, for the celebration was quite fitting since it was in the city of Sonoma, June 14, 1846, that the Mexican garrison was captured by a party of 33 men of the Bear Republic Party, and the first Bear Flag was hoisted over California soil. The Bear Flag was later chosen as the California State flag.

1897 was the second time Santa Rosa had been chosen as the site of the celebration. In 1885 more than 1000 Native Sons had paraded, and Governor G. Stoneman had been the main speaker.

Wednesday, Sept. 8, 1897, found Santa Rosa decked in gay finery. Along the main parade route, span-

ning the street every fifteen feet, were lines of streamers, bear flags and Japanese lanterns. At each intersection was a large banner with a motto such as "Welcome NSGW and Veteran Firemen."

As each excursion train pulled in it was greeted by Park's Band and the Official Welcoming Committee which marched the visitors to the Headquarters Committee for assignment of lodging and Parlor headquarters. After night fell the late excursionists came marching in groups through town under lighted Japanese lanterns, a sky illuminated with a shower of fireworks, an archway formed by thousands of Roman candles shooting sparks upward, and a large display of other fireworks along the route.

Admission Day, Thursday, Sept. 9, 1897, was a clear, bright, autumn day without a cloud in the sky. Between 6 and 11 a.m., 62 carloads of guests arrived by two railroad lines to add to the numbers who had arrived the night before. There were at least 15,000 guests, plus the town's own population, present for the grand parade and celebration.

The parade was formed promptly after the last excursion train pulled in. It was headed by the local marshal and flanked by half a dozen of the dandiest of the "Frisco" police force, followed by the Grand Marshall and his aides, all mounted. The advance division was made up of Park's Band, the local Native Daughters of the Golden West attired in white, carrying white silk parasols, and riding in neat buggies. Next came the Santa Rosa Parlor, with their white duck suits and hats and golden silk sashes followed by city, county and state officials, pioneers, Mexican War veterans, all in carriages. The parade had seven regular divisions, with each division having at least two bands, and some also having a drum corps—altogether 15 bands and 5 drum corps were present.

Each parlor group dressed in its own colorful fashion. One group wore tall, broad brimmed straw sombreros, while the National Parlor boys all appeared in black "neglige" shirts, and trousers with yellow trimmings.

Featured in the parade was a group of fifty Exempt Veteran Firemen who, in their full service uniforms, pulled along their first fire engine, a real antique on which was painted: "NO. 1. NEW YORK 1820, SAN FRANCISCO 1849." A team of eight black oxen pulled a covered immi-

grant wagon with a sign on the side which read: "WE'LL COME AND SEE YOU WHEN WE SETTLE. WE ARE GLAD TO BE WITH YOU." Old Pike had his miner's pack train of mules, and one group paraded with a black bear. "The bear flags which greeted the eyes everywhere are a facsimile of the historical banner which waved over the old plaza at Sonoma." At least 3000 NSGW were in line, and 64 parlors were represented in the parade.

There was the customary literary exercise with welcomes and acceptances. In the afternoon an audience of about 2000 was at Cycling Park for the races, and the riders were in good form. A number of parlors had receptions, dances and banquets. "Grennan's Orchestra of San Francisco discoursed all the newest music in delightful and brilliant style. A feature was the dancing of the new and graceful Gavotte," at the El Dorado Parlor party.

On Friday, Sept. 10, a feast was held at Grace Brothers Park, plus an open air concert and dancing, and more bicycle races. In the evening there was an early concert at the courthouse portico and fireworks, followed by an open dance in the park.

This historical account was taken from the local Santa Rosa newspaper "The Sonoma Democrat," Sept. 11, 1897. Acknowledgement must be made to Miss Janet Hellerich of the Santa Rosa Free Public Library for her continued search for material on this event even after she found that a fire had destroyed the local library copies. Only through her persistence was a copy finally located.

DESCRIPTION

Obverse: SOUVENIR / NATIVE / SONS / CELEBRATION / SANTA ROSA / SEPT. 8, 9, and 10, 1897. Picture of a lady bear shaking hands with a man bear; at bottom edge, microscopic L. H. MOISE, S.F.

Reverse: Variety of State Seal (with rays and reclining bear); at bottom edge, microscopic MOISE S.F. Brass; 33½ mm.

To the best of the author's knowledge only two pieces are known, and he would appreciate hearing from any owners of this item. This piece was discovered after the deadline for the "So-Called" Dollar Book, and is similar in design and purpose to H&K No. 635.

* * * * *

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PRIVATE GOLD COINAGE OF CALIFORNIA

By A. KOSOFF, *Beverly Hills*

As collectors of coins and as students of Numismatics, most of us have at one time or another heard of the private gold coins issued in Georgia and North Carolina between 1830 and 1834. These were the first private issues of real consequence in this country, but the subsequent coinage of California private issues constitutes a much more important chapter on this subject.

This series of California coinage struck between 1849 and 1855 represents the currency in actual use between the time of the discovery of gold and the establishment of a branch of the United States Mint in San Francisco, a period which, with the exception of our war years, was one of the most sensational in our national history.

When John Marshall discovered gold at Sutter's Mill in January, 1848, our country was soon placed on a solid and prosperous basis which brought an abrupt end to the period of hard times which had prevailed for a decade. News of this discovery and the enormous influx of population had a far-reaching effect throughout the country. Repeating the history of Georgia and North Carolina, gold dust and gold nuggets soon became a medium of exchange even though it was inadequate for many purposes.

At this point it might be wise to review the currency situation which prevailed at the time.

Coins were a necessity for the payment of custom duties and importers hoarded

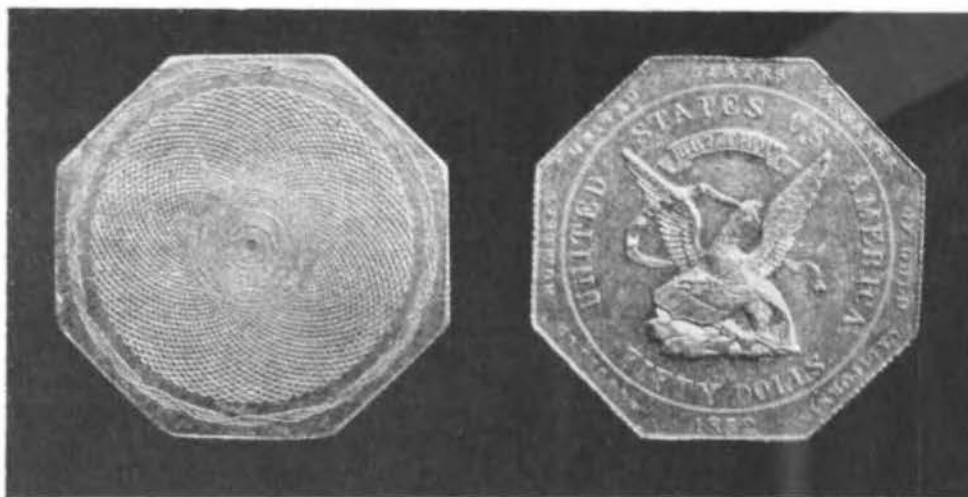
every piece of coined money, whether of gold or silver, for that purpose. The origin of the coinage made no difference. German, French, English and Spanish coins were in circulation. Mexican and South American money was in common use. The fact that these coins were passing at over their par value did not affect trade in any way. A silver French 5-franc piece, intrinsically worth only 93 cents, was accepted at \$1.00 everywhere except at the Custom House. For fractional currency any foreign silver coin was acceptable and all silver the approximate size of a quarter passed for that amount even though the par value was less than 20 cents.

The inevitable result of this practice was that speculators reaped large profits from the traffic in silver and gold coins. This resulted in a further scarcity of metallic currency. The fact that the Custom House refused to accept gold dust or gold nuggets but insisted on hard money further aggravated the situation. Merchants actually paid a premium in gold dust to obtain silver coins which were worth less than the price paid for them, for not only did the Custom House insist on it, but the Orientals would accept nothing but silver in payment for purchases in China.

Obviously something had to be done—and so, only six months after John Marshall's discovery of gold, a group of San Francisco's prominent citizens, among whom were Walter Colton, Talbot H. Green, J. S. Ruckle, Thomas O. Larkin,



Kellogg & Co., 50 Dols., 1855; wt. 1309 gr.



Augustus Humbert, 50 Dols., 1851; target center, milled edge, 887 thous.

C. Wooster, Milton Little, J. Spence, and Jose Abrigo, outlined the embarrassing state of affairs caused by the lack of a suitable currency and asked the Governor to sanction a private assayer's issue of gold coins. Governor Mason agreed to order the Custom House to receive in payment of duties California grain gold wrought into convenient shapes at its intrinsic values. Before the business men had time to act on this authority, the Governor revoked the permission, having ascertained that an Act of Congress prohibited him from granting it.

Within the month a great public meeting was held in San Francisco determined to fix a definite value for gold-dust and to find some substitute or equivalent which would be acceptable by the government. Miners from all parts of the state attended as did bankers, merchants, and the general public. Despite the insistence of the miners that California raw gold was worth \$18.00 or more per ounce, a current value was settled upon at \$16.00 per ounce.

This, then, was the currency status when the first private gold coin of California made its appearance. Early in 1849 a Five Dollar Gold Coin was issued bearing the stamp of Norris, Gregg & Norris. Though issued at Benicia City it has the imprint of San Francisco. The firm of Norris, Gregg & Norris is, therefore, reputed to be the first to issue a private gold coin in California.

Moffat & Co., who were doing an assaying and gold brokerage business in San Francisco, issued rectangular ingots of gold and followed with a circular Ten Dollar piece bearing their private stamp.

From this slow beginning there followed an avalanche of private gold coins; every big company coming from the east brought

machinery for coining. Even Utah and Oregon coins appeared in the form of issues of the Mormons and the Oregon Territory.

Among the California companies striking coins were the Miner's Bank, Ormsby & Co., Pacific Co., Cincinnati Mining and Trading Co. and Templeton Reid who had originally struck the first of all private coinage in Georgia in 1830.

Many of the issues were debased and soon lost favor. A Pacific Company ten dollar piece, for example, had a gold value of only \$7.86, whereas the Templeton Reid \$10.00 piece was worth \$9.75. The Mormon coins were the first to fall into disrepute, then the Miner's Bank came into disfavor. These and other issues were soon driven from circulation, and those who owned them were forced to sell them for bullion value and take a loss. One after another these issues disappeared, leaving only Moffat & Co. as the survivor of 1849, and they continued to mint coins in 1850. In the latter year Baldwin & Co., and Dubosq & Co. issued \$5.00 and \$10.00 pieces.

The path of private coinage became a little rough when a bill was introduced in the State Legislature which would class all such coins as counterfeits, would impose the penalties provided for in the federal laws, and would compel the redemption by the companies of all coinage issued by them within 30 days after the passage of the act.

Moffat & Co. came to its own defense and its reply cited the history of the private coinage of Georgia and North Carolina and protested that no law existed prohibiting the practice—all to no avail. Laws were passed in 1850 which put an end to the business for a time. Another act established



Wass, Molitor & Co., 50 Dols., 1855; wt. 1278.5 gr.

the Office of State Assayer and prescribed his duties. Private coiners were compelled to redeem their issues on demand, at face value. Other restrictions included in the act made it next to impossible for them to continue in business. But early in 1851, the State Legislature repealed these acts and Congress authorized the appointment of a United States Assayer. Moffat & Co., who had obtained the contract with the federal government, abandoned their private issues.

In 1851 Five Dollar coins bearing the inscriptions of Dunbar & Co. and Schultz & Co., appeared and Baldwin & Co. issued a \$20.00 piece, the first of that value to be struck. The first \$5.00 piece, you will recall, was struck by Norris, Gregg & Norris, the first \$10.00 by Moffatt & Co. and now the \$20.00 by Baldwin & Co.

More coins were issued in 1851 than ever before and again the distrust of the coinage came to the surface, and again all but those coins issued by Moffat & Co. were refused by the banks. A committee of merchants condemned the principle of private coinage as, and I quote "evidently so adverse to the existence of a sound monetary system that the committee cannot but condemn it in the strongest terms." The committee urged the establishment of a United States Mint as the only sound solution to the problem.

For the second time, private coinage was abandoned and the only pieces struck were the fifty dollar octagonal slugs issued by the U. S. Assay Office. Refusal of the business men to accept any other coins speedily sent those coins to the melting pot. We now see why these coins are so rare today and sell at substantial premium prices.

Unfortunately, the \$50.00 piece, which

now was the only acceptable coin, was a bit cumbersome. Besides smaller denominations were necessary in order to conduct business. Once again the coins which were acceptable for duties were hoarded and three years of hectic activity brought the citizens back to where they had started.

Moffat & Co. was petitioned by the merchants to issue coins in smaller denominations than \$50.00, and the company obtained government consent to mint Ten and Twenty dollar pieces. Another firm, Wass, Molitor & Co., began to strike \$10.00 coins in 1852 which is the date of the new Moffat issues. The United States Assay Office also issued \$10.00 and \$20.00 coins in 1853, as did Moffat & Co. and in 1854 and 1855 the firm of Kellogg & Co. issued \$20.00 coins and also in 1855 a \$50.00 coin which is excessively rare.

Nowhere have we mentioned the names of Augustus Humbert, Frederick D. Kohler or Albert Kuner and no consideration of California coinage would be complete without it.

Augustus Humbert was the first United States Assayer of Gold in California and issued coinage attesting that fact. Frederick D. Kohler was a New York jeweler who joined the gold rush in 1849, and in 1850 was appointed State Assayer. I am particularly grateful to Mr. Kohler for his issues of gold ingots, having been fortunate to obtain one of them several years ago. The fact that it sold for \$13,750.00 does not in any way lessen my appreciation of Mr. Kohler.

As for Albert Kuner, he was born in Bavaria in 1819 and came to the United States in 1848. Like many others, he was attracted to California by the marvelous gold discoveries, and arrived in San Fran-

cisco in 1849. Having been an expert in the art of Cameo cutting, Albert Kuner found it profitable to enter the field of die-cutting and seal engraving. In the employ of Moffat & Co., he cut the dies for the first Ten Dollar piece as well as those for the seal of California and Medals for hundreds of issues. He made the dies for the Norris, Gregg & Norris coin, the Moffat coins of 1849 and 1850, the Schultz \$5.00, the Dunbar \$5.00, the Baldwin \$5.00, \$10.00 and \$20.00 coins, and some of the \$50.00 pieces. He also engraved the dies for the coins issued by Wass, Molitor & Co. as well as those for the Deseret Assay Office \$5.00 coin of Utah.

In 1862, when the Government of British Columbia contemplated an issue of local gold, Kuner was commissioned to prepare the dies and he cut those from which were struck the excessively rare \$10.00 and \$20.00 pieces dated 1862 bearing the name of "British Columbia." One of these sets is in the British Museum. I have acquired the \$20.00 piece which was once in the Montague Collection and later in the Collection of the late Elmer B. Sears. Kuner also engraved the seals for Wells, Fargo & Co. from 1852 until his death in 1906.

Like most other interesting series, that of the private gold of California is studded with rare and unusual pattern or experimental pieces. Especially so is the \$2.50 coin issued by the Pacific Company. It was struck in silver and only two pieces were made. None were issued in gold. A \$10.00 coin by Moran & Clark appears in copper, and a \$20.00 coin of the Cincinnati

Mining & Trading Co. is also known in copper. Edgar Adams listed it as unique. An outstanding item is a \$20.00 coin struck in copper by Blake & Co. in 1856. It represents the final effort of a contemplated renewal of private coinage in California. An interesting story accompanies this unique coin. Some years ago Henry Chapman owned it and the well-known collector, Waldo Newcomer, wanted it. He wanted it so badly that he offered to trade quite a collection of coins for it. Chapman drove a hard bargain, then auctioned off the Collection which he took in trade. As the story goes, Chapman realized over \$13,000 for the material for which he had relinquished this \$20.00 copper coin minted by Blake & Co. in 1856.

In closing we should recall that the coinage by private mints was born of necessity. Merchants and bankers tolerated it because they expected it to be replaced by government issues.

Its need, however, was felt by every class in the community. It gave the miners an increased value for their nuggets and dust. It facilitated trade for the merchant and permitted of a more stable system for the banker. The government could clear its custom storehouse because merchants were able to pay their duties. True, all of these benefits did not always accrue at one and the same time, but someone always did benefit. Even today we numismatists benefit from the issue of Private Gold Coins, from the joy of examining specimens and from the study of the history of the pioneers and the founders of the western empire.



Augustus Humbert, 50 Dols., 1851; fineness 880, No. 50 rev.



CALIFORNIA GOLD COINS—MONEY MUSEUM SHOW PIECES

By CHARLES R. HOSKINS, Detroit, Michigan

On the day in 1847 when James Marshall, a little-known mechanic from New Jersey, agreed to erect a sawmill in the Sacramento River Valley for John Sutter, neither man could have anticipated the chain of events which would follow.

Early in 1848 Marshall discovered gold near the mill site. Gold! A word that stirred exciting thoughts of untold wealth in the minds of all who heard of the discovery! A secret of this magnitude could never be kept. Like a brush fire devouring the western plains, the "secret" passed from man to man, first in whispers, later with a roar. "Is it true?" they asked. Many were skeptical. Others believed—because they wanted to believe. More than a hundred thousand people from St. Louis, Boston and Atlanta, from England, Mexico, China and Australia gathered their belongings and joined the search for the fabulous pot of gold at the end of the California rainbow!

For most, the gold was to become a mirage, a thing in sight but never in grasp. Even so, some "Forty-Niners" truly struck it rich panning gold from the streams of California.

Those exciting years left their mark not only on the California hillsides, but also on the coins which were used so often to buy gold-

panning equipment, camping gear, food and whiskey. Few other coins are as closely associated with such an adventurous, hot-blooded period of United States history. Those small discs of gold financed the early growth of the cities and towns of the Pacific coast. We can easily understand the allure which California gold holds for numismatists today.

A special display of private and territorial gold coins of the United States, predominantly from California, is exhibited in the **National Bank of Detroit's Money Museum**. The most exceptional gold coin of California on display is the Wass-Molitor fifty dollar gold piece of 1855. Although tens of thousands were struck, only a small number—perhaps less than fifteen—survived the mass melting of gold coins which took place later.

Gold coins of Norris, Grieg and Norris, of Moffat and Company (August Humbert), the United States Assay Office, the Pacific Company, Baldwin and Company, Wass-Molitor and Company, and Kellogg and Company are included in the United States coin display. They are accompanied by gold coins from other areas—the Bechtlers of North Carolina, Clark Gruber and Company of Colorado, and the Mormons of Utah.



CROCKER (ANGLO) CITIZENS NATIONAL BANK

By DON THRALL, Berkeley

Collecting the currency as well as the checks of a bank and its predecessors to show its geneology and development through the years makes an interesting collection. Today banks furnish us with the bulk of our circulating media in the form of checks.

Crocker Citizens National Bank advertises itself as the oldest national bank in the west. To make this claim it traces its ancestry back to the First National Gold Bank of San Francisco, which opened for business on Jan. 1, 1871. An examination of a note on this bank reveals a date of Nov. 30, 1870. This is the date on which the charter was issued.

National gold banks were peculiar to California. In an effort to establish national banks in California, and to put an acceptable paper currency into circulation in California, the National Bank Act was amended on July 12, 1870. The First National Gold Bank of San Francisco was the first such bank to open for business. Because national gold banks operated at certain disadvantages, when compared to the regular national banks or state banks, Congress on Feb. 14, 1880, enacted a statute which provided in part: "That any national gold bank may cease to be a gold bank and convert into a regular national bank." The First National Gold Bank of San Francisco did convert to the First National Bank of San Francisco in February 1884.

The First National Gold Bank of San Francisco issued currency in the

following denominations: \$5, \$10, \$20, \$50, \$100 and \$500. All but the \$500 note are known to exist and are collectible, although they are all rare and expensive. Checks on this bank are also available and much less expensive. First National Bank of San Francisco also issued currency in the same denominations as above. Checks on this bank are available also, and again much less expensive than the currency.

Crocker Woolworth & Co. was established as a private banking firm on June 3, 1883. The Crocker of this firm was William Henry Crocker, a son of Charles Crocker, one of the Big Four of the Central Pacific Railroad. On Sept. 1, 1886 this private bank was incorporated as Crocker Woolworth National Bank. Crocker Woolworth & Co. did not issue currency since they were a private state bank; however, there should be checks available although I do not have one in my collection. Crocker Woolworth National Bank issued currency, and it is available although somewhat scarce. Checks on this bank are available.

The firm of Sisson Crocker & Co. was originally organized to engage in railroad construction. The Crocker in this firm was Clark W., a brother of Charles W. of the Central Pacific. The firm later became a private bank and on April 25, 1892 incorporated as the Bank of Sisson, Crocker & Co. In 1895 it was sold to the Crocker Woolworth National Bank with which

it had had no previous connection. Since Sisson Crocker & Co. was a private bank it did not issue currency. Checks on this bank should be available, although I do not have a specimen in my collection.

One of California's early private banking houses was established in February 1850 by Drury J. Tallant. It was called simply D. J. Tallant & Co. In the spring of 1851 Judge J. W. Wilde was taken into the firm as a partner, and the name was changed to Tallant & Wilde. Judge Wilde died Aug. 3, 1862 and the firm name was changed to Tallant & Co., on Jan. 1, 1863. On July 28, 1891 the business was incorporated as the Tallant Banking Co. In 1898 it was purchased by Crocker Woolworth National Bank. The various Tallant firms were all private banks, so did not issue currency. Checks on the various firms are available however.

The corporate title of the Crocker Woolworth National Bank was changed to Crocker National Bank in September 1906. The Crocker National Bank issued currency and it is available.

On Jan. 1, 1926 the First National Bank of San Francisco and the Crocker National Bank of San Francisco merged to form the Crocker First National Bank of San Francisco. Crocker First National Bank of San Francisco issued currency which is readily available.

Originally national banks were strictly commercial banks and were not permitted to carry on a savings or trust business. To get around this many national banks organized affiliated state chartered savings institutions which could carry on a savings and trust business. The state chartered savings institution generally conducted its business in the same building as its parent national bank, in fact to all outward appearances was the savings department of the national bank. The First National Bank affiliate was the First Federal Trust Company which merged as Crocker First Federal Trust Company.

The merged bank operated as what is known as a unit bank having only one office until March 1, 1947, when it acquired the Farmers and Merchants Savings Bank of Oakland. Farmers and Merchants Savings Bank of Oakland was incorporated on Nov. 10, 1892, and opened for business on

April 11, 1893. It operated during most of its life as strictly a savings bank, but in later years did carry the equivalent of commercial accounts. This office in Oakland was the only branch office ever operated by Crocker First National Bank. Farmers and Merchants Saving Bank was a state chartered bank and was not permitted to issue currency, however checks on it should be obtainable.

The Anglo part of this bank traces its beginnings back to the establishment of the Anglo Californian Bank Ltd., in 1873. However, the roots of the bank may be traced back much farther.

During the year 1850 an importing firm was established in San Francisco by J. W. Seligman & Co. In the latter part of 1867 this firm appeared among the lists of banks and bankers in San Francisco. The company had for many years been engaged in the merchandising business in San Francisco. It was an importing and exporting company and was especially active in the shipment of gold; its head office being located in New York. As the years passed banking activities absorbed more and more of its attention, and on April 5, 1873, it was incorporated as the Anglo Californian Bank Ltd., an English corporation, with a capital of £ 300,000. Since neither of these banks held national charters they did not issue currency, making it necessary to represent them in a collection with checks.

Lazard Feres, silk importers and dealers in exchange, with offices in London and Paris, was a well established firm in San Francisco when it announced on Sept. 11, 1876 that in the future it would devote itself solely to the banking business. This house had excellent French connections and was the representative of the French government on the Pacific Coast. On Jan. 4, 1884 it became the London Paris & American Bank, Ltd., incorporated under a British charter with a capital stock of £ 400,000. These banks did not issue currency, but their checks are available.

In 1908 Herbert Fleishacker and his associates secured control of the foreign held stock of the London Paris & American Bank Ltd., and nationalized it under the name of the London Paris National Bank with a capital of two million dollars. Since this was a



national bank it probably issued currency, although I do not have any in my collection nor do I recall having seen any.

During the year 1909 a law was passed in California restraining foreign banks from having branches in this state. In January 1909 Fleishacker's newly acquired London Paris National Bank merged with the Anglo Californian Bank Ltd., a British owned bank, to become the Anglo and London Paris National Bank with a capital of four million dollars. This bank issued currency in both the old large size and the new small size.

A bank organized under a national charter was not, at that time, permitted to transact a trust and savings business. In order to retain the trust and savings business which had been developed by the Anglo Californian Bank Ltd., the Anglo California Trust Company was organized in 1909 under a state charter as a new banking institution. In 1911 Anglo California absorbed the Central Trust Co. In 1912 the Swiss American Bank became part of the Anglo California Trust Co. The last bank acquired was the Seaboard National Bank, whose business was purchased on Sept. 4, 1920. Checks on these banks should be available, and the Seaboard National Bank probably issued currency.

In 1932 the Anglo & London Paris National Bank and its affiliated trust and savings institution, the Anglo California Trust Co., combined to form the new Anglo California National Bank. Currency issued by this bank is available.

On Feb. 10, 1956 the Crocker First National Bank and the Anglo California National Bank merged to form the

Crocker Anglo National Bank and became the fifth largest bank in California. Although this is a national bank it never issued currency as the acceptable type of security for national currency is no longer available. Federal Reserve notes have taken over the job of the national currency. However checks are available on this bank.

Citizens National Bank of Los Angeles was founded in 1890 as the Citizens Bank of Los Angeles. It opened for business Oct. 6, 1890. On July 31, 1901 the Citizens Bank, a state chartered institution took out a national charter and became the Citizens National Bank of Los Angeles. In 1911 Citizens National Bank organized the Citizens Trust and Savings Bank to handle its trust and savings business. This latter bank established its first branch in 1919, and continued to open branches from that time on. It became one of the large banks in Southern California and in time merged with its parent, Citizens National Bank. The national bank issued currency and checks should be available on the state chartered bank.

Nov. 1, 1963 saw the merger of Crocker Anglo National Bank, headquartered in San Francisco and serving Northern and Central California and Citizens National Bank, headquartered in Los Angeles and serving Southern California, to form the new Crocker Citizens National Bank with headquarters in San Francisco. This new bank is the second largest statewide bank and fourth largest in the state (following Bank of America, Security First National of Los Angeles, and Wells Fargo of San Francisco).

EARLY CALIFORNIA SMALL GOLD COINS

By DAN HARLEY, Pomona

The rainy afternoon of January 28, 1848, when James Marshall found gold in the tail race of a new sawmill on the south fork of the American River started a stampede of people to California that changed the history of our nation.

By June of 1848 the rush was in full swing. Soldiers deserted the army, sailors deserted their ships, workmen dropped their tools, all to join in the search for gold. By 1850 the population of California had jumped from 15,000 people to over 93,000. San Francisco's population had changed from 800 to 25,000.

In San Francisco, at that time, a plate of ham and eggs cost \$3 and a tent on the plaza, large enough to house a gambling casino, rented for \$40,000 a year. Miners' wages ranged from \$50 a day to \$10,000 a week. It was in these times that many of our small gold coins were struck.

While gold dust and nuggets circulated freely among the miners and merchants in the coast towns, the Custom Houses in the port cities would not accept them. Therefore the necessity for small coins came into being to get much needed merchandise from the Custom House officials. Col. R. B. Mason, the Military Governor of California at the time, suggested that privately minted coins would be accepted. This idea started the coinage that we find so interesting today.

Jewelers, gunsmiths, engravers and goldsmiths started to make gold coins. Some of the better known companies such as Frautier, Deviercy & Co.; Gaime, Guillemot & Co., and M. Deriberpe & Co. placed marks of identification on the coins they manufactured. However, many gold pieces bear no initials or marks.

It should be pointed out that the small gold coins made during this period were "struck." By this process the bottom die was placed on a block. A coin blank was laid upon it and the top die placed on the blank. Then this assembly was struck with a sledge hammer. Seldom did the hammer strike twice with the same pressure and often it was struck a slant-

ing blow that caused one side or edge of a coin to be strongly marked while opposite edges were weak. Hence, many of these coins, in existence today, while having the appearance of being worn, actually never had strong details as are uniformly present in pressed coins. (Pressed coins come from a pair of dies that are in a fixed location in a powerful press and the pressure is evenly distributed over all the die's surface.)

David C. Broderick, who later became United States Senator and who lost his life in a duel with Justice Davis S. Terry, was an early gold coin maker in California. Coming to San Francisco in 1849, he entered into partnership with F. D. Kohler. Kohler did the engraving and Broderick, who was a very powerful man, spent much of his time wielding the sledge hammer.

Quarter dollars, half dollars and dollars were made in both round and octagonal shapes. In 1882, legislation was passed outlawing the issuance of private coins. This stopped the manufacture of these coins as money, but with the words "Dollar" or "Dol" removed, these coins were issued as commemorative many times since then, often with dates going back to the actual years of coinage.

Although many thousands of these private gold coins were issued after it became illegal to make them, a great many were melted down for their gold content, thus causing their scarcity today.

The first large collection of these small coins was put together by the late Ed. M. Lee of Glendale, who in 1932 catalogued some 250 varieties. In 1955, R. H. Burnie catalogued the following varieties of California small gold coins: quarter dollar octagon, 138 varieties; quarter dollar round, 144; half dollars octagon, 119; half dollars, round, 168; one dollar octagon, 92; and one dollar, round, 22; making a total number of 683 varieties.

* * *

Reprint from CALIFORNIA HERALD, official publication of The Native Daughters of the Golden West, March 1957.

Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co.

By CHARLES V. KAPPEN, San Jose

The Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. was founded in 1884 by G. W. Randall at No. 11 Allen Block, Temple and Spring Sts., where it was a second-floor operation. In 1886 its address was listed as 20-22 N. Spring St. The company moved to 123 N. Spring St. in 1890 and to 224 W. First St. in 1891.

Although coin checks may have been manufactured as early as 1887 on a large hand-operated screw press, year of earliest striking probably was nearer 1891, when the business became a ground-floor operation with a toggle press in the basement.

"The company did make checks on the screw press before we got the toggle press," Al C. Davidson, president, said. "Whether as early as 1887 or as late as 1891, though, we pioneered the manufacture of metal checks in Los Angeles. Many of the articles we sold in those days were made by the C. H. Hanson Co. of Chicago. I know we bought all our badges there and all other articles that we were not equipped to make ourselves. As finances allowed, we added equipment to do our own manufacturing.

"Mr. Randall spent very little time in the plant or his office, but traveled extensively for the company in Arizona, New Mexico, Mexico and South America," President Davidson added. "A special section of our catalog was printed in Spanish. H. A. Osgood was manager. Mr. Osgood was with the company from 1893 until his death in 1925.

In January, 1910, the company moved to 131 S. Spring St. It was incorporated Aug. 25, 1915.

Upon the death of Mr. Randall in 1924, his wife, Mrs. Alice J. Randall, inherited the business. Frank T. Rinehart became president of the company at that time. Mrs. Randall died in 1928.

The company moved to its present location, 1500 S. Los Angeles St. (corner South Los Angeles and 15th Sts.) in April 1924.

On April 10, 1935, it became known as the Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co., the name it now bears. According to Mr. Davidson, the change was made "because it was believed our salesmen could pick up orders for stationery items at the same time as for other products, thereby increasing our sales volume."

When Mr. Rinehart retired as head of the firm in 1935, Allister (Al) C. Davidson became president. Rinehart remained as manager for about two years. Mr. Davidson, who has been with the company since 1910, is son-in-law of the founder, G. W. Randall.

Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. still uses that same toggle press which it installed in its basement operation at 224 W. First St. in 1891. It was on this first toggle press used in Los Angeles that the medals bearing John F. Kennedy's portrait were struck for the Navy in 1963 to commemorate his visit to China Lake, Calif.

In addition, the company now owns, and still uses, the toggle press once the property of the Chipron Stamp & Stationery Co., Los Angeles.

"Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. bought an interest in the Southern California Rubber Stamp Co. in 1912 and in 1915 owned all of the SCRS Co.," Davidson said, "but Southern Cal was consolidated with the LARS when we moved into our new building in 1924."

Southern California Rubber Stamp Co. had its beginnings in 1909 at 433 W. 5th St., with Charles K. Cook, who had been a salesman for Chipron, and P. L. Haworth as partners. It moved to 725 S. Spring St. in 1910. Al C. Davidson, now Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. president, was assigned to Southern Cal in 1915 and stayed there until the consolidation with LARS in 1924.

P. L. Haworth remained with Southern Cal and in 1924 became sales manager of the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. Cook, however,



left Southern Cal and started in business for himself. In 1920, he joined a three-way partnership of Charles Cook, Louis Holtz and Albert K. Smith, Jr., called the Western Rubber Stamp Co., Smith was the son of Albert K. Smith, Sr., partner of Chipron. Western was not successful, and after two years was absorbed by the Chipron Rubber Stamp Co.

In 1929, Cook and Holtz became owners of the Pacific Rubber Stamp Co., which was moved to 918 S. Spring St. that year. Clarke Dennington, vice president of the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co., left the LARS and bought the Pacific Rubber Stamp Co. in 1929. In 1930, Cook was in business under his own name at 257 S. Spring St. In 1933, he was in business at 432 E. St. That same year, Louis Holtz started the Eureka Rubber Stamp Co. at 257 Spring St. In 1936, Cook Marking Device Co. was located at 105 W. Sixth St., and in 1940, at 956 S. Grand Ave.

"Charles K. Cook was in more different companies than any of the rest of us," Al C. Davidson said, "but he was strictly in rubber stamps."

"Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. purchased the Long Beach Rubber Stamp Co. about 1934," Davidson said, "but closed it up after the earthquake."

In June, 1942, Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. bought the Chipron Stamp Co., which it still operates as an independent manufacturing concern under the name Chipron Stamp & Stationery Co. "The name change was made at the time we bought the company at 224 W. First St. We operated it there for some time, then moved it to 1620 Hill St., where it is now," Davidson said.

Chipron Rubber Stamp Co. had begun business in 1892 at 126 S. Spring St. It also was known as Noble and Chipron. The Daugherty Stamp Co., begun at 217 W. First St. in 1906, later was consolidated with Chipron.

The Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. bought out the metal stamping department of Acme Metal Die & Stencil Co. in December 1951, operated it about a year, then consolidated it with the L. A. S. & S. Co., bringing all Acme dies and machinery to the L. A. S. & S. plant.

Acme had its beginnings in 1936 at 219 E. Washington Blvd. It was moved to 213 E. 17th St. in 1938. The building was torn down in 1959 to

make way for a freeway. Some time after its founding by Frank Lewis, a metals specialist, it was sold to Bob Gaunt and U. Moore, two young men who were interested in electronics. They made very small motors, demand for which grew so quickly that they had to eliminate the marking device portion of their business. This they sold in two parts.

The metal die and engraving portion was sold to William Chudnof, who worked for the Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. at that time (June 1950). Chudnof changed the name of that division to Acme Metal Die & Stamp Co. It now is called Acme Marking Device Co.

The Cook Rubber Stamp Co. and the Acme Metal Die and Stencil Co. both were located at 217 E. 17th St. in 1951. All the metal stamping business of Acme was consolidated in the Cook company, of which Al C. Davidson of the L. A. S. & S. company owned 55 per cent interest.

This company is not to be confused with the Acme Rubber Stamp Co. begun at 728 E. 47th St. in 1929, nor the Acme Rubber Stamp Co. located at 707 W. Eighth St. in 1950. The Acme rubber stamp companies did no metal work.

Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. bought out the Crescent Rubber Stamp Co. Sept. 27, 1956, and operates it independently at 1508 S. Los Angeles St. Crescent had its beginnings at 257 S. Spring St. in 1924, and had moved to 1423 S. Main St. in 1938. In 1942 the business was listed under the name Walter R. Kaiser, but returned to the Crescent name a year later.

The Mercury Die & Letter Co. was started at 546 E. 16th St. in 1918 by Sam Hamnet, an early twentieth century employee of the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co.

The writer is not acquainted with medals and tokens of the Long Beach, Chipron and Crescent companies. Acme Metal Die struck the medal for the thirtieth anniversary of Paramount Pictures in 1941 (See Hibler and Kappen, *So-Called Dollars*, No. 740). A token of the Southern California Rubber Stamp Co. is illustrated.

Many cards and tokens are found with small signature line, L. A. Rub. Stamp Co., LARS, LASSCO (or other variations) in lower obverse or reverse border.

Among recent medals struck by Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. has been that produced for premieres of the movie "Cleopatra" in New York City June 11, 1963, and in Los Angeles June 18, 1963. The medal, bearing conjoined heads of Cleopatra and Mark Antony (likenesses of Elizabeth Taylor and Richard Burton), was given free to those who attended the first-night performance in either of the two cities.

The company also struck the Kennedy medal for the U. S. Naval Ordnance Test Station, China Lake, Calif., to commemorate President John F. Kennedy's visit to that installation June 7, 1963, on occasion of the Mojave Desert naval station's twentieth anniversary, and the 1964 Nevada Statehood Centennial medals manufactured for Masterpiece Medallions, Claremont, Calif.

Perhaps the best known medal struck by the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. was that produced for dedication of the Santa Monica Breakwater in 1933 (Hibler-Kappen Nos. 680-687).

Among other medals are those of the Pageant of Progress, Los Angeles, 1922, with advertisement on reverse of the Hellman Commercial Trust and Savings Bank; the medal struck for National Music Week, Los Angeles, 1947, picturing city hall; San

Gabriel Mission medal bearing edifice and "Founded 1771"; Semana Nautica medal, Santa Barbara; Courtship of Miles Standish medal; medal bearing edifice (Mormon Temple) and "This Is the Place," Salt Lake City; Los Angeles Railway, welcoming arrival of first streamlined streetcars, 1937 (Atwood Calif. 450D); and the so-called "Monroe"—possibly magicians' piece, circa 1923.

Among hundreds of tokens are the Rancheros Visitadores pieces of Santa Barbara; Jeffries & Kipper, 324 S. Spring St., Los Angeles; and several checks "Good for Lunch" or "Good for One Meal" struck for schools in Arizona and Southern California.

General manager of Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co. is William M. Knapp, who returned to L. A. S. & S. from retirement in 1963. He had joined the company in 1937. General sales manager is Bill Beacham.

Another Los Angeles company, not mentioned above, which did metal work but no coining was the W. M. Partridge Co., established in 1935 at 432 S. Main St. It later was named the Partridge Stamp Co., Inc., with address at 316 E. Washington St.

There were many other "rubber stamp" companies in Los Angeles through the years, but none of them struck medals or tokens, according to Mr. Davidson.

American-Pacific Stamp Co.

The Pacific Rubber Stamp Co., Los Angeles, was started by Julius Klein in 1906 in the San Fernando Bldg., 112 E. Fourth St. (Corner Fourth and Main Sts.) Principal manufactures have been rubber stamps, metal work and engraving.

William A. Gross, present plant superintendent and minor partner at American-Pacific Stamp Co., went to work for Mr. Klein at the Pacific Stamp Co. in 1912. Before moving to Los Angeles, Mr. Gross had worked for the Pacific Coast Stamp Co. in Portland, Ore., in rubber stamp making and in coining. "Beer checks were the vogue at that time," he said.

Gross recalled that Thomas Daugherty Jr., who was working for Klein at that time as an engraver, had told him that his father, Thomas Daugherty, Sr., was the first metal die engraver to settle in Los Angeles. His father, he said, had started an engrav-

ing company under his own name, and later founded the Daugherty Stamp Co. at 217 W. First St. in 1906.

Daugherty also told Gross that the large screw press then in operation at Pacific had been brought around the Horn by his father "about 1860" (Some say the date may have been as late as 1880). This first screw press was still in use by the Pacific Rubber Stamp Co. until 1925. Daugherty Sr. later became a partner of Frank Chipron. Daugherty's understudy, Herman Fest, now is employed by Acme Marking Device Co.

Frank Chipron started the Chipron Rubber Stamp Co. in 1892 at 126 S. Spring St., according to Gross. Chipron, still later, took Albert K. Smith, Sr., foreman of the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co., into partnership. Smith's specialty was metal and Chip-

ron's was rubber stamp work. The Chipron company was purchased by the Los Angeles Stamp & Stationery Co., in 1942.

When Otis Chancy left Chipron to go into business, William A. Gross took his place until the United States entered World War I. After the war, Gross returned to Chipron's, where he worked in the metal department.

In the meantime, Louis Holtz, Charles Cook and Burt Godfrey purchased the Pacific Stamp Co. and employed Mr. Gross as their foreman. Godfrey had been a salesman for Klein's Pacific Rubber Stamp Co. The plant was moved in 1920 from E. Fourth St. to 918 S. Main St.

"E. C. Shaw founded the E. C. Shaw Co., a stamp and die business, in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1906. He sold the company in 1924 and moved to Los Angeles, where he started the American Stamp Co. that same year," Courtney Shaw, present company head, said. On June 13, 1925, Mr. Shaw, Otis D. Chancy, George J. Dreyer and William A. Gross formed a union at 225 W. Pico St. (W. Pico and Olive Sts.) under the name American Rubber Stamp and Printing Co.

"During the Depression, coining and steel stamps were a large part of our business, and we added large rubber box dies," William A. Gross explained.

Before 1925, both the American and the Pacific companies were corporations.

Clarke Dennington, vice president of the Los Angeles Rubber Stamp Co. left LARS and bought the Pacific Rubber Stamp Co. in 1929. In 1930 it was consolidated with the American Rubber Stamp and Printing Co. under a working agreement to save overhead expenses, under the name American-Pacific Stamp Co. Both companies experienced financial difficulties during the Depression and the consolidation was necessary. Even then, business was so bad that Dennington walked out, leaving the business to E. C. Shaw. Dennington worked on a newspaper in El Centro until he died a few years after he left American-Pacific. The Pacific inventory was sold to satisfy heirs, according to Mr. Gross.

Upon consolidation, equipment and supplies of the American company were moved from the West Pico and Olive Sts. location to the Pacific plant at Ninth and Main Sts. The American-Pacific Co. moved to its present location, 1523 E. Washington Blvd., Los Angeles, in 1943.

During World War II it developed and stamped out millions of electrodes for regulating frequency in radio. These were coined in hydraulic presses made just for that purpose. The electrodes had to be made of stainless steel, blanked from sheet stock, which at that time was not smooth. The variation in thickness was as much as .002, and the hardness varied from edge to center.

American-Pacific Stamp Co. bought an optical equipment plant to grind the electrodes smooth before coining.

American-Pacific still uses the small hydraulic presses from time to time, and the large 1200-ton toggle press is still in use daily, stamping advertising coins and medals, as well as police badges.

Courtney Shaw, Sr., son of the company's founder, is major owner and manager, although under his name on his calling card, only the word "Partner" appears.

Among medals struck by American-Pacific have been the Hawaii Statehood pieces of 1959 (H-K Nos. 548-551); Kansas Statehood (Midway U.S.A.) Centennial medal of 1961; Seattle World's Fair Century 21 medal, 1962; 44-mm. silver plated bronze medal struck for Frank Sinatra's Children's Charities Tour, 1962; Cal-Neva medals and tokens; City of Hope medals; small octagonal souvenir California gold pieces bearing Liberty Head surrounded by 13 stars and dated 1857 on obverse, and ½ Bear and California Gold on reverse; Hopalong Cassidy, Mickey Mouse and other movie medals; athlete-of-the-month medals of the Helms Athletic Foundation; special award medals used by the University of Southern California; the Arcadia, Calif., "Days of Lucky Baldwin" and the Lynwood, Calif., anniversary medalets; convention, political and anniversary medals; lodge medals and tokens; such transportation tokens as that struck for the U. S. 12th Naval District, Treasure Island (Atwood Calif. 760I); waiter checks; and such cards and tokens as the Vaqueros del Desierto tokens of Palm Springs, Calif.; the Nielsen's, Fourth St. and Vermont Ave.; and the "Good for One Pop-sicle or One Sherbicle" tokens of Los Angeles.

Most cards and tokens are manufactured for distributors, consequently do not bear the American-Pacific signature.



A Panama Pacific Gold Medal

By LES LODGE, Oakland, CSNA 5-1

No doubt many of our CSNA members read in the August 1967 issue of "The Numismatist" the very interesting article by Dr. Alexis O. Fernandez entitled "A New Discovery — A Panama Pacific Gold Medal". (This having reference to the Panama Pacific International Exposition held in San Francisco in 1915.)

For the benefit of those who did not read this article, I quote a few paragraphs from it:

"It was my good fortune to come across a Cuban exile who had recently left his homeland. He had been a jeweler in Havana and, especially during his last months in Cuba, had come across quite a few gold coins whose owners wanted melted and sold as gold. This he did quite often, but when presented with the medal referred to here, he could not bring himself to destroy such a beautiful piece. Instead, he kept it and smuggled it out of the country.

"The medal is of gold, but I do not know the fineness. It measures 48 mm in diameter and is in extremely high relief, being 4.5 mm thick at its center, where the eagle's breast is the medal's boldest point. Its weight is 41.5 grams.

"What seems to make this medal unique is the inscription on the reverse:

Major General
Mario G. Menocal
President
of the Republic of Cuba

"As soon as I obtained the medal, I tried to find out its history, who made the presentation and why, as well as other points of interest such as mintage. Whether the medal could be purchased during the Exposition at San Francisco, or if it was only a presentation piece. To date, all my efforts have proven fruitless, although I have shown this piece to a prominent West Coast dealer and have been in correspondence with a member of the Pacific Coast Numismatic Society.

"Nobody has come up with an answer to any of the many questions which have arisen! I even wrote to a son of President Menocal, who now lives in the United States. He answered: "I remember that in the year 1915 there was an exposition in San Francisco, California, and if I had the personal papers which belonged to my father and which I kept for so many years, I might possibly have been able to give you details about the same. I believe that the Cuban delegation sent to that exposition by the government was headed by General Enrique Lynaz del Castillo." In short, no really definite information regarding this beautiful gold piece has been uncovered."

Under date of Jan. 26, 1966, I received a letter from Dr. Fernandez inquiring as to details of this medal. I answered him, advising that in the 1915 Collection of the Pacific Coast Numismatic Society there was no reference to any such medal as he

described, and asked for a photo of same. This was forwarded to me later in the year. The PCNS 1915 collection does have reference to the Cuban Pavilion at the Exposition.

The word "Shreves" appears on the reverse of this medal in small letters. An inquiry with that firm in San Francisco, by Erich Werling, was without any good results, as they have no records going back that far nor any employes still with them who might have remembered this medal. Inquiry with the San Francisco Examiner and the San Francisco Chronicle revealed nothing as to the medal, nor as to whether or not President Menocal had actually been in San Francisco during the exposition. Likewise the California Historical Society was unable to shed any light on the subject.

Due to my illness last year, and the press of other matters, I was not able to pursue this matter further. In September 1967 a letter was received from Dr. Fernandez advising that in response to his article in "The Numismatist" he received one reply only, this from a well-known numismatist in Detroit. This gentleman had conducted a search for information about the medal, but without any results. He did, however, offer to purchase the medal (which offer I presume was refused).

I recently turned over my file on this subject to my sister, Dr. Elizabeth L. Rees, CSNA no. 1170, who spent considerable time in the Bancroft Library at the University of California in Berkeley. The results of her research are:

Mario G. Menocal was born in Matanzas, Cuba, in 1866. He received his engineering degree from Cornell University, New York; took part in many activities in the war against Spain and in the occupation

of Cuba by the USA. He was elected president of Cuba in 1912, assuming office in May 1913, and was re-elected in 1916, continuing in that office until May 1921. He is described as being "a handsome man with long face and full beard, hair parted in middle".

General Menocal was very friendly to the United States, and was most emphatic that Cuba be well represented at the PPIE in San Francisco in 1915 (which indeed it was). He cooperated closely with the United States during World War I, and in April 1917 Cuba declared war against Germany.

The Cuban site dedication at the PPIE was held in San Francisco, Sept. 25, 1913, with a delegation from Cuba present. However, there is no evidence that President Menocal was present—nor is there any mention of any medals having been given out to anyone at that time. An interesting side-light on this luncheon and dedication ceremony is that Major Rowan, the man who "carried the message to Garcia", was present.

With reference to the statement by President Menocal's son that the Cuban delegation to the Exposition was headed by General Enrique Lynaz del Castillo, I found a verification of this; also that during the absence of Castillo (presumably from San Francisco) that General Jose Lara Mirst was acting in charge.

But, nowhere could I find any reference to this particular medal nor to any similar ones. Therefore I am unable to advise when, how and why it was issued.

Perhaps some of our readers may be able to shed some more light on this most intriguing subject. If so, please write me as to what knowledge you have and I will relay it on to Dr. Fernandez.

Private Gold Coinage of San Francisco

By RONNIE CARR, Tulare

Certainly it can be asserted that San Francisco was the "mecca" of private issue gold in California from 1849 through 1855.

During the gold rush years, those that followed, regular government coinage along with all other accept-

able foreign monetary medium was being hoarded by merchants for export and import duties. California citizens and business men were faced with the perplexing problem of seeking some method to alleviate the shortage of circulating coinage. As

early as 1848 merchants petitioned the California legislature for a bill which would allow private firms to issue gold. The critical situation was solved eventually.

It required the untiring efforts of countless public spirited citizens in suggesting continuously that State legislation be adopted to bring about sufficient coinage in California. Finally on April 12, 1850, prominent citizens of San Francisco addressed a petition to Governor Peter Burnett, asking that Frederick D. Kohler be appointed State Assayer. The bill creating the office of State Assayer became law on April 20, 1850. This led the way for some fifteen firms to rise and fall during the next five years.

It was hoped that all establishments would strike and issue gold pieces within the same standards of pureness as regular government gold coins. However, unfortunately this was not always true.

In 1849, Moffat and Co. was formed. While not the first company to strike private gold, it was the most reputable and enjoyed the longest operation as a semi-official concern. In June of 1849, Moffat & Co. began to issue small rectangular pieces of gold in values from \$9.43 to \$264.00. Today the only \$9.43 specimen reposes in the mint collection of the Smithsonian Institution. The most common variety is the \$16 ingot, which is relatively scarce and commands a premium of many thousands of dollars. Following the ingots, Moffat & Co. issued two \$10 coins as well as a \$5 piece in 1849. The last coin to bear the name, Moffat & Co., was the \$20 type of 1853. It has never been actually established why this particular denomination bears the firm's name, as John Little Moffat retired some time before the coin was struck.

Pacific & Co., also of San Francisco, is somewhat of a mystery firm. Its origin is quite uncertain. It is believed the exceedingly rare coins of this firm were hand-struck, with the assistance of a sledge-hammer. To attest to their rarity, recently in the 1964 Kreisberg-Schulman sale in New York the \$10 and \$5 specimens from the Virgil Brand collection sold for \$42,000; a record breaking price for private issue gold. These coins bear on the obverse a radiated cap quite

similar to the coins of Mexico. The reverse shows a somewhat slender eagle within the words "PACIFIC COMPANY CALIFORNIA".

San Francisco was the home of two other noted firms—Schultz & Co. and Dunbar & Co. Each issued \$5 pieces only in the year 1851. The famous engraver, Albert Kuner, made the dies for both these organizations. Today these coins are very rare, due to their high gold content which through the years found them in the melting pot for a small profit. Such a pity, to be sure, as nearly all have been lost to the present day collector. In the 1963 dispersal of the George O. Walton collection, a Dunbar & Co. specimen in extremely fine condition sold for a record price of \$11,250. In the same sale going at \$8,250 was a Shultz & Co. half eagle.

The desire of all private gold collectors is to own one of the 13 specimens of the fabulous Kellogg & Co. "slug". Without question the most beautifully designed of any private issue gold piece, this coin above all others is the ultimate. John G. Kellogg came to San Francisco Oct. 12, 1849, from Auburn, N.Y. During the first few years he was employed by Moffat & Co., and remained with that organization until Dec. 14, 1853. The lack of coin was again desperate, and the business men petitioned Kellogg and Richter to "supply the need". Their plea was answered and on Feb. 9, 1854 Kellogg & Co. placed their first \$20 piece in circulation.

Among the most interesting gold pieces issued in California are the small denomination gold coins from 1853 through 1882. Issued in quarters, halves and dollars they were in many cases made by the same parties who coined the larger denominations. Others were struck by jewelers and merchants. None of these small pieces can be attributed with certainty to any individual or firm. Specimens are found in both octagonal and round shape. Nearly all the genuine ones have the denomination spelled DOL. or DOLLAR. Again San Francisco can take credit for being the originator of these highly charming coins.

In the years 1908, 1909, 1910, 1914 and 1915 M. E. Hart Co., 560 Powell St., San Francisco, coined numerous small denomination pieces including special items for the Alaska Yukon

Pacific Exposition and small token gold pieces for the states of Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Washington and Utah. A most prodigious firm, it provided thousands of beautiful small gold coins for all to enjoy.

Private gold coinage saw its last year of production by 1855 in California. Then by act of Congress in 1864 it became illegal to mint gold coins privately. Today most all private issue gold pieces are quite scarce, with numerous series being

nearly extinct. It is also true certain dates are relatively common, however, in true numismatic meaning all, even the most readily available private issue gold coins, are all rare fragments filled with invaluable moments of history, sentiment and priceless legends of mystery, representing a time to which we can never return—only to be satisfied and awed by the remaining pieces of our State's romantic past that we can possess through private issue gold.

TIN FROM CALIFORNIA

By VIRGINIA CULVER, Arcadia

With the important discovery of gold in Northern California in 1848 it was natural that the influx of people into our state made their way to those rich lands. These people came to make their fortunes in strikes of gold, and to settle in an unknown country resplendent with riches. San Francisco was a natural for commercial enterprises with its Golden Gate Bay. It follows that numismatic history was made by these people. The City of San Francisco can claim many rare private gold pieces which are much treasured by numismatists. Token and medal collectors have an area well chosen because the city was booming and businesses flourished and this site was chosen for several of our country's expositions.

However, all the lore of California is not found in the northern part. While the wild gold rush was going on in the northern part, there were people settling in Southern California. Here was a land whose climate was ideal, and the soil when irrigated produced abundantly.

The discovery of a tin mine in the Temescal Mountains in 1856 in Riverside County never made the history books. Some references state the mine was discovered as early as 1853, but whichever date is correct, the discovery was before the Civil War. Temescal Mine, or Cajalco as it is

sometimes called, is located about twelve miles from the city of Riverside. The advent of the Civil War stopped the exploration and work on this mine, although a 95 foot shaft had been sunk vertically.

This discovery should be interesting to us, even though numismatics had not entered the picture, because we are not a country known for its tin production and the bulk of that which we use is imported from other countries.

Exploration of the Temescal Mine was resumed in 1868 and it is said that a 15.34 ton shipment of ore was sent to San Francisco in 1869. This shipment yielded 6,895 pounds of tin. Tin bars were exhibited at the Mechanics Fair in San Francisco in 1869. Specimens were of the purest quality and investigators, including many Englishmen, agreed that this was the richest and most workable body of tin ore in the whole United States.

Litigation plagued the mine and for years practically nothing was accomplished until after the title was cleared in 1888. In 1890 two English companies, after repeated investigations of the region, incorporated and poured around two million dollars into the project. Tin was mined from Temescal in 1891 and 1892, but it mysteriously closed late in 1892. To this day there has been no satisfactory

answer. No one knows why. Later attempts to mine tin from Temescal were made in 1928; and in 1942 the ore produced less than one pound of tin oxide per ton of cassiterite. These two unsuccessful attempts probably give us a clue.

The brief heyday of tin mining at Temescal did produce for us a numismatic item in the form of a token made of this tin in 1891. It was given out with the compliments of a hotel manager in Riverside by the name of Frank A. Miller. This token is 30 mm with a plain edge.

Most of us know the delightful history of the now famous Mission Inn in Riverside which had its beginning back in 1875. Captain C. C. Miller brought his family from Wisconsin to California, while he worked as an engineer for the new colony of Riverside. He built a solid-walled adobe cottage, the first in town, for his family. His salary from the colony was meager and his work required him to be away from home often. Son Frank enlisted the aid of his mother and sister, and they began taking in boarders in 1876. They gave the name of "Glenwood Cottage" to their new little business. The homey hospitality soon necessitated more room for this budding hotel, and "Glenwood Cottages" came into being. More growth produced the "Glenwood Tavern" and then the "Glenwood Hotel." Frank A. Miller, proprietor from the beginning, dreamed of a show place for art treasures from all over the world—and he lived to see his dream come true.

His efforts of endeavor were not solely concentrated on his hotel. He helped incorporate the city of Riverside in 1883. He helped build theaters and business buildings for the city. He built street car lines; and in the early 1890s helped form "The Landmarks Club" to call attention to the historic interest of the old Spanish Missions. This club sought ways and means of preserving our California heritage.

It was no doubt the formation of this club which led Miller to change the architecture of his already famous hotel from the frame building to the brick and concrete of today, thus paying tribute to the architecture of the missions and the romance of old Spanish California. So the "Hotel Glenwood" evolved into the "Glenwood Mission Inn" and finally "The Mission Inn."

The history, the treasures, the intrigue of this world famous resort would fill a volume. But I do not wish you readers to enjoy this historical spot vicariously. You must enjoy this large measure of old California in person by visiting the Mission Inn. You will not regret it.

The reverse side of this tin token alludes to another historical point of Southern California — oranges. Through the foresight of Judge J. W. North of Knoxville, Tenn., Riverside County became a booming area of citrus growers.

In 1870 Judge North and other interested pioneers visited an area about 65 miles from Los Angeles, and decided this was the spot for the colony of Riverside. The land had never been cultivated and was a dry desert. About 4000 acres were purchased by these men for \$3.50 an acre. The outlook was not a promising one at the beginning, because the nearest supplies had to come 65 miles. The biggest problem was water, which was expensive and far away. The visions of men accomplish miracles. By 1871 a \$50,000 canal had been completed to this territory from the Santa Ana River nine miles distant.

In 1873, two orange trees were planted in Riverside by Mrs. Eliza C. Tibbet. Oranges had already been flourishing in Southern California back as far as 1804, but these two trees were of a different species. These were the Washington or Bahia navel variety which had originated in Brazil and were brought to Washington, D.C., by the United States Department of Agriculture. The climate of Riverside was most conducive to this new variety and it gained prestige quickly.

Transcontinental railways were opened in 1869 and as early as 1877 a full carload of oranges made its way to the eastern part of the United States. A few years later oranges were shipped to England, and they reportedly arrived in excellent condition.

Adding impetus to the citrus boom of Southern California was the series of annual citrus fairs held in Riverside. These promoted the development of orange growers and brought national attention to Riverside as one of the greatest orange growing districts in the world.



So, one lowly token records for us three significant stories of early Southern California history—the Temescal Tin Mine twelve miles from Riverside; the world famous Mission Inn; and the orange growing boom in Riverside County.

Could one ask more from just an ounce of tin?

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CALIFORNIA'S MEDAL AND TOKEN MANUFACTURERS

Klinkner - Moise - Patrick

By CHARLES V. KAPPEN, San Jose

A pioneer California medal and token manufacturer, Patrick & Co., this month will consolidate all manufacturing operations at its 70,000 square-foot plant at 561 Mission St., San Francisco.

The company was founded by Benjamin H. and James H. Patrick in 1893, but it claims an original starting date of 1873, when Charles A. Klinkner established C. A. Klinkner & Co.

Following Klinkner's death in 1893, his family operated the plant until 1897, when L. H. Moise purchased it. Moise (1857-1943) had been employed as foreman and in saleswork for Klinkner, but began a business of

his own in the same building, competing with the Klinkners, in 1893.

Following consolidation of the Klinkner and Moise companies in 1897, the firm name became the Moise-Klinkner Co., although the Klinkner and Moise companies continued to be listed separately until some time in 1904. The Moise-Klinkner listing, begun in 1898, was used until the company was purchased by Patrick & Co.

In October 1905, Moise-Klinkner moved into a 6-story building at 417 Market St., which it occupied until April 18, 1906, when the San Francisco earthquake and fire burned the structure.

The company moved temporarily



into the basement of flats at 903 Fulton St., then, in 1907, into its new building at 1212 Market St. In 1917 the firm moved to 365-369 Market St., corner of Fremont St. (the Moise Building, now Pacific Greyhound), where it remained until 1932.

Benjamin H. and James M. Patrick established Patrick & Co. at 310 California St. in 1893, moving to 318 California St. in 1894, to 221 Sansome St. in 1902 and to 111-113 Sansome St. in 1903. At this last location, the Patrick plant, too, was destroyed in the 1906 fire.

The firm moved temporarily to Pine St. (1500 block) and Van Ness Ave. and, a few months later, to 126 Bush St.

Next move, in 1908, was to 33 Sutter St., which today is the back end of the firm's wholesale and retail store. The business fronts on 560 Market St., which was taken over by Patrick when the former occupant moved out in 1908. Patrick removed the partition between the Sutter and Market St. areas of the building to create one large expanse of space. Patrick & Co. now owns the building.

Patrick & Co. bought the Moise-Klinkner Co. in 1930, and the combined company became known as the Patrick & Moise-Klinkner Co. It reverted to its former name, Patrick & Co., in 1955. J. Howard Patrick, son of James M., is president. Sigfried Pels, vice president, has been an employee of the company since 1893, when as a lad of 16, he began working for the C. A. Klinkner Co. Mr. Pels is the source of much of the information found in this article.

Metal products manufacturing was conducted at 560 Market St. and at 608 Folsom St. The end of March 1963 will see all manufacturing consolidated at the 561 Mission St. plant, which occupies 70,000 square feet — nearly two acres. The 560 Market St. store remains as a wholesale and retail outlet only.

The firm has supplied tokens, medals and badges for every state in the Union, Hong Kong, Guam, and Central American and other countries. These have been produced in brass,

copper, aluminum, white metal, vulcanite, nickel compositions, fiber and wood.

The L. H. Moise Co. struck medals for the California Midwinter International Exposition, San Francisco, 1894 (Hibler and Kappen, *So-Called Dollars*, No. 245A); California Admission Day Celebration, Stockton, 1896 (H-K 635); Cloverdale Citrus Fair, 1897 (H-K 639); Truckee Ice Carnival, 1893 (H-K 729); Mechanics Institute Fair, San Francisco, 1897 (H-K 641), and many others.

The Moise-Klinkner Co. struck medals honoring the return of U.S. soldiers from the Spanish-American War; for the 1909 meeting of Presidents Taft and Diaz (H-K 386-388); for the Monterrey, Nueva Leon, Mexico, exposition of the early 1900s; for the Panama-Pacific International Exposition, 1915, and for many other events.

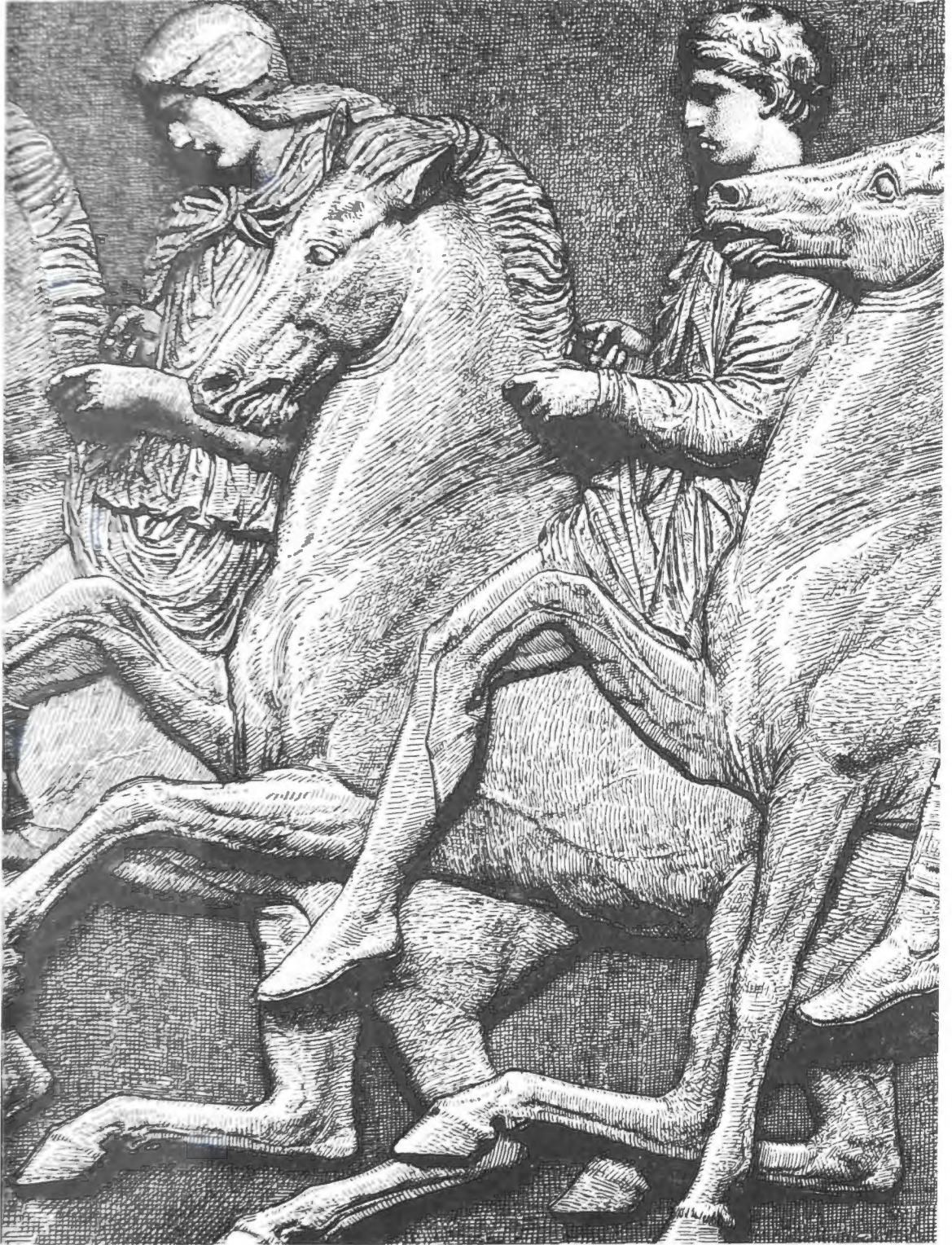
Among medals struck by Patrick & Moise-Klinkner are those of the Golden Gate International Exposition, Treasure Island, 1939-1940.

A branch office of the Moise-Klinkner Co. was established in Oakland at 952 Broadway in 1907. The branch address became 828 Broadway in 1912 and 343 - 13th St. in 1914. The office was moved to 1410 Webster St. in 1920 and to 1125 Webster St. in 1925. The branch office continued at that address until the late 1930s. Tokens are known of the Broadway and 13th Street addresses. A branch office of Patrick & Moise-Klinkner was conducted in Sacramento in 1931.

This brief account is designed to assist the collector in the dating of his tokens and medals. Those pieces with signatures (nameplates or imprints) of C. A. Klinkner & Co. were struck 1873-1904; those of the L. H. Moise Co., 1893-1904; those of the Moise-Klinkner Co., 1898-1930; those of Patrick & Co., 1893-1930 and since 1955; and those of the Patrick-Moise-Klinkner Co., 1930-1955.

The collector also may determine approximate dates of store cards of these companies by the street addresses appearing on them.

ANCIENT



ANCIENT

Coins play a very important part in our lives. By definition, coins are objects of metal of a standard weight, stamped with a representation guaranteeing their weight and value. It might be interesting to take a trip back through the years and follow the development of coinage.

Long before the appearance of metallic coinage ancient man transacted all daily trade by the direct exchange of one article for another. About 4000 B. C. the Sumerians of ancient Mesopotamia knew how to make use of silver, copper and other metals. This has been established through recent excavations in that region. Their metal work was very remarkable. They also made use of ivory, fine stone and precious woods. In addition the Sumerians were skillful in agriculture. They raised great crops of grain and vegetables and kept domestic animals. All of these many products were used as barter.

A great many records of Sumerian businessmen testify to the remarkable height their commerce reached before 3000 B. C. Men signed receipts, accounts, bills and notes. They were all inscribed on clay tablets; the chief source of knowledge of this early type of civilization. It has also been learned from tablets, that money was loaned at 20 to 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % interest as was regulated by law.

So extensive was the Sumerian trade that their merchants began trade with other civilizations. Caravans traveled across the Mesopotamian trade routes, a thousand miles of mountains and desert, into India. Others took the tortuous overland journey to distant China or West to the Kingdom of the Lydians. Frail cargo-laden craft followed the coast lines of Asia and sailed from island to island across the Mediterranean.

As trade grew they placed agents in these far away lands. These representatives made use of letters of credit and salesmen would travel for hundreds of miles. Although coinage was not yet employed, commerce was carried on successfully through barter.

The Egyptians also became quite industrious. They were able to grow more crops than they could use themselves and were in a position to exchange their surplus for copper mined in Northern Arabia and on the island of Cyprus. They also imported wood from Syria, spices and incense from India.

Ancient man had developed a wide trade by the seventh century B.C. that was truly international. As business grew, the problems grew and arguments arose over the value of goods. The logical answer was the creation of a means of exchange, universally recognized, but small in size. In the seventh century B.C. the merchants of Lydia, located in what is now Western Turkey, struck the first coinage. Later the state took over the minting of coins. Commerce was manipulated on a larger scale than ever. The coins began to move freely in the markets all over the ancient world.

The use of coins quickly spread to the Ionian Greek cities of Asia Minor and to the Greek mainland. Aegina was the site of the first European Mint. Silver coins of Aegina, bearing the likeness of a turtle, were first struck within twenty to fifty years after those of Lydia and continued to be issued for more than four centuries. Most of the Greek City states such as Athens and Corinth struck prolific coinages for centuries.

In the Roman period, the emperors used their coins as a system of mass propaganda. Roman Imperial coinage was designed to enhance the prestige of the ruler, to keep alive tradition, to publicize current events, to proclaim military victories, and to conceal defeats.

Monetary Beginning

By PAUL D. SNEDAKER, San Francisco

While reading a very old family Bible, I found that many of the parables and verses referred to silver as the money of ancient times.

From this beautiful volume, which contains many pictures and information of historic value in addition to the Scriptures, I obtained the knowledge being presented to you in this paper.

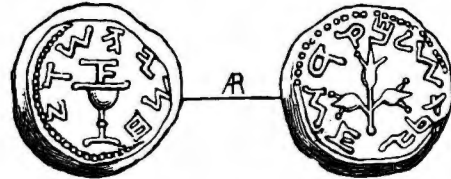
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There is no evidence of the use of coined money before the return from the Babylonian Captivity; but silver was used for money in quantities determinate by weight, at least, as early as the time of Abraham; its earliest mention is in the generic sense of the price paid for a slave, for in the 17th chapter of Genesis, 13th verse, it states, "And he that is bought with thy money." The 1000 pieces of silver paid by Abimelech to Abraham and the 20 pieces of silver for which Joseph was sold to the Ishmaelites, were probably rings, such as we see on the Egyptian monuments in the act of being weighed.

In the first recorded transaction of commerce, the cave of Machpelah was purchased by Abraham for 400 shekels of silver. It was this by weight that was current with the merchants. Money is not in the original, for in Genesis 23rd chapter, 16th verse, it says, "Abraham weighed to Ephron the silver, which he had

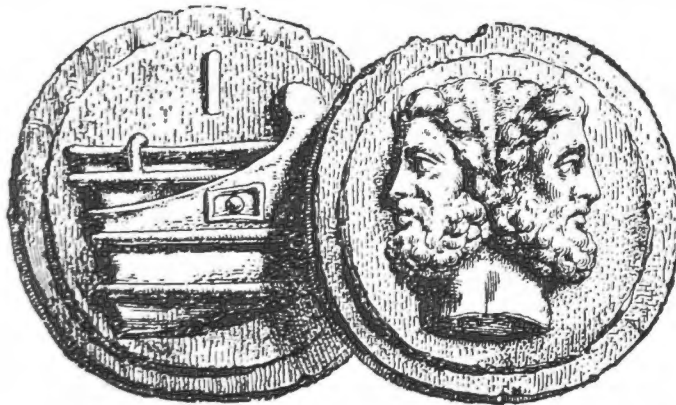
named, 400 shekels of silver, current money with the merchants." The shekel weight of silver was the unit of value through the whole age of Hebrew history down to the Babylonian Captivity.

No native Jewish coinage appears to have existed until Antiochus VII Sidetes granted Simon Maccabaeus the license to coin money in 140 B.C.



SHEKEL OF ISRAEL
Size Reduced

It is now generally agreed that the oldest Jewish silver coins belong to this period. They are shekels and half shekels of 220 and 110 grains. With this silver there was associated a copper coinage, some pieces of which have been supposed to reach as far back as Judas Maccabaeus; but probably none are really older than John Hyrcanus, 135 B.C., from whom the series is continued, almost without interruption, to the end of the Asmonaeon house. Most of them are marked as the half or quarter (doubtless of the shekel), their average weights being $235\frac{1}{2}$ and 132 grains. There is a third piece of



AS OF ANCIENT ROME

about 82 grains, which seems to be the sixth of a shekel.

The abundant money of Herod the Great seems to have been a continuation of the copper coinage of the Maccabees, with some adaption to the Roman standard. It appears to be of three denominations: the smallest a piece of brass, the next a double, and the third a treble. Some specimens are much like the abundant copper coinage of Alexander Jannaeus, and seem to have been connected on one hand with the quarter shekel of the old coinage, and on the other with the farthing of the New Testament.

The word "farthing" seems to be used for two different coins: first, the Roman asses, which by the successive reductions of the Roman copper coinage, had come to signify merely the 16th part of the reduced denarius of the early Imperial Age, or less than a half penny.

The other farthing is defined as two mites, but at this time there were no Roman coins current in a smaller value than the asses, and this farthing and mite are doubtless of the Maccabaean and Herodian copper coinage. The mite may have been that smallest copper coin, which is supposed to have been the sixth of a shekel, and the farthing probably was the smallest Herodian coin, reduced from the Asmonaeon quarter

shekel.

The use of the mite among the poorest of the people is indicated by the affecting circumstance that the poor widow cast two such pieces into the treasury to make up the insignificant sum of a farthing.

The ordinary silver currency of Palestine was the Roman denarius, the "penny" so frequently mentioned in the Gospels. It was a silver piece equal to 10 asses, but with the successive reductions of the as, it had become, after the time of Augustus, equal to 16 asses.

From the parable of the laborers in the vineyards, it would seem that the rate of wages was a denarius a day. A denarius was considered the fourth part of the silver stater which, in turn, was considered the equivalent of the shekel.

The "Thirty Pieces of Silver", promised to Judas as the price of his treachery, in all probability denote shekels, as in the Old Testament numerals are given without specific values, like the "Thirty of Silver" in Zechariah's prophecy of this very transaction.

The shekel has been estimated variously at from 50 to 62½ cents American money, which would indicate Christ was betrayed for approximately \$18.75.



DENARIUS OF TIBERIUS
"Tribute Penny"

Ancient Greeks and Their Coins

By STANLEY S. HAWLEY, Oakland

Several years ago, when my interest was aroused in coins of the ancient Greeks, I discovered that (1) a knowledge of history, the "how" and "why" of the coins, is essential; (2) that there is a vast amount of such information available which, as I read it, convinced me that (3) a knowledge of the ancient Greek people, themselves, would help me; and (4) the study of these people, as I got into it, was fascinating.

In this "collateral" reading about the people, in addition to the usual histories and encyclopedias, I enjoyed several other books. Histories, in a broad sense, describe what people have done as nations and races. Reference is made to individuals, as such, only if they were leaders or heroes. These books, which I read, gave me an insight into some of the thinking of indi-

viduals and groups, and detailed, in greater or less degree, the accomplishments of the great and not-so-great.

As I read, I became aware of some facts which were most intriguing to me: (1) Many of the important individuals, historically, were contemporary with my coins; (2) there were many other not-so-great, but interesting persons who were their contemporaries; (3) many of these ancient coins were struck before and during the lifetimes of these persons; so (4) these people could have handled these coins.

To attempt to discuss these interesting ancient Greeks, in any large numbers, and the relation between them and their coins, would exceed allowable limits of this article. A few selected ones, however, are presented.

ABDERA



Silver tetradrachm of Abdera, 390-352 B.C.
Obverse, Griffin seated to left; reverse, head
of Apollo. Actual size, 21 mm.

The griffin as a coin type at Abdera, clearly copied from that on coins of the mother-city Teos (Asia Minor), is symbolical of the cultus either of Apollo or Dionysos. The magistrates, whose names occur from earliest times on coins of this town, were chief dignitaries of the state, not mere monetary magistrates.

From the number of names recorded in the lists of magistrates for more than a century, we conclude that they were the annual Eponymi of the city. The almost constant presence of the preposition "EPI" and the prominent place occupied by the name are arguments in favor of this hypothesis.

ABDERA, THE TOWN

This town, on the southern coast of Thrace, not far from the mouth of the river Nestus, originally was a Clazomenian (Ionia, Asia Minor) colony founded in the seventh century B.C. This first venture did not prove

a success, but in 544 B.C. the site was reoccupied by the larger portion of the population of Teos, who preferred to leave their native land rather than submit to the Persian conqueror, Herod.

Abdera was the birthplace of Protagoras (the first who called himself a Sophist) and Democritus (founder of the atomic theory). Nevertheless, its inhabitants were accounted stupid, and an "Abderite" was a term of reproach.

The ruins still may be seen near Cape Balastra.

DEMOCRITUS

Democritus, born in Abdera about 460 B.C., is the one man in this group who pre-dates the coin illustrated.

His contribution to the world, however, was such that he merits our admiration. His extensive knowledge embraced mathematics, mechanics, grammar, music and other useful

arts. He was the founder of the atomic theory.

ATOMIC THEORY. The atomism of the ancients asserted that the universe was made up of two things, the atoms and the void. The void, or empty space, was infinite in extent; the atoms, infinite in number. Atoms were all alike in substance, but might differ from one another in size, shape, arrangement and position. Atoms were uncreated and eternal, solid and uniform in substance, in themselves incapable of change; but, being in perpetual motion in the void, they wove, by their various combinations and dissolutions, all the pageant of our changing world.

Democritus' atoms, having bulk, were spatially divisible but physically indivisible. The concept of impenetrability was the essential quality of the atom.

Democritus also made a contribution of capital importance to the problem of sense perception. Every perceptible thing, according to him, is an arrangement of atoms which differ only in size and shape. The quality which we ascribe to this arrangement of atoms—the colors, the tastes, the noises, the smells, the tactile qualities—are not qualities of the bodies themselves, but effects of the bodies on organs of sense.

Athens

In the case of other cities discussed, only one coin is shown. The earlier coin, above, with wheel, while not so well known as an Athenian type, was contemporary with Solon. The second coin is illustrated because it is the well-known Athenian type.

The great majority of Athenian coinage, as we know it today, consists of head of Athena on obverse, owl on reverse.

About 550 B.C., Peisistratus doubled the weight of the Solonian didrachm, valuing the new coin as a tetradrachm. This change in weight won it popularity, and it became the dominant coinage in the eastern trade for more than two centuries. The exact weight of these coins, moreover, made them readily acceptable.

The Athenians went much further than their neighbors or contemporaries in striking minor silver coins. Their smallest was a "hemitetartemoron" (one-eighth obol), which was worth 1/48th of a drachma.

ATHENS, THE CITY

The beginnings of Athens are lost in myth and legend. It was said to have been founded by Theseus and named by him in honor of the goddess Athena. Its domain was the small and mountainous peninsula of Attica, washed on two sides by the Aegean Sea. The city owed its glory to the wits of its people rather than

to any advantages of situation.

The government of many of the city-states—notably Athens—passed through four stages from Homer to historical times. During the eighth and seventh centuries B.C., the kings disappeared, monarchy gave way to oligarchy; that is, rule of the few. The power went over to the wealthy land-owning nobles, the "Eupatrids" or well-born. But the rivalry among the nobles and the discontent of the oppressed masses were too great, and soon a third stage appeared. This third type of government is known as tyranny.

In the sixth century, Athens began to take her place among the foremost city-states of Greece. By the fifth century, she was mistress of the seas and head of a great empire. She also emerged into the fourth type of government—the first democracy in the history of the world.

The Peloponnesian Wars broke the power of Athens, and in 404 B.C. her empire came to an end. In the next century she fell to Macedon, and in the second century to Rome.

SOLON THE LAWGIVER

Early in the sixth century B.C., Solon, the lawgiver, became the tyrant of Athens. He was the first to commute into money values the fines of oxen and sheep fixed by the laws of Draco.

Apparently the early coins of



Left above, silver didrachm, 594-562 B.C. Obverse, wheel; reverse, quartered incuse square. Actual size, 16 mm. On right, silver tetradrachm, 560-490 B.C. Obverse, head of Athena, right, in crested Athenian helmet of archaic style; reverse, owl with closed wings in incuse square. To left, olive branch with berry. Actual size, 25 mm.

Athens came from Aegina, an island about 20 miles away. When Solon came into power, he instituted monetary reforms, which have been described by Androtion and Aristotle, who wrote about 350 B.C.

The Athenian farmers had gone into debt. Financial difficulties were harassing them. They had borrowed money, which originally came from Aegina, where silver was cheaper than at Athens. The money-lender could get his money at Aegina at

low prices, then lend it in Athens at a much higher figure.

Solon substituted an Athenian drachma of about 130 grains in weight, which was about the local value, for the heavier Aeginetan drachma of 192 grains. Thus the debtors could pay off their debts with the new coin at about "70 cents on the dollar"—and the only people to suffer were the speculators in exchange.

This was 590 B.C.!

Agrigentum

The eagle and crab usually have been taken as emblems of Zeus and Poseidon, but it may be doubted whether the crab is not in this case the fresh-water crab common in the rivers of Italy, Sicily and Greece. If so, the crab represents the river Akragas.

This was by far the richest and most magnificent city on the south coast of Sicily. Founded about 582 B.C., it stood on a height a few miles from the sea, near the confluence of the two rivers Akragas and Hypsas.

It was destroyed by the Carthaginians (405 B.C.), and although re-

built by Timoleon, it never regained its former greatness.

The ruined temples, still to be seen at Girgenti, alone would suffice to prove its ancient splendor.

It was the birthplace of Empedocles.

EMPEDOCLES

Empedocles was a philosopher of Agrigentum, about 450 B.C.

He was a champion of sense-evidence. He recognized the fallibility of the senses, but defended the critical employment of the evidence they supplied. He wrote: "Go to, now, con-



Silver tetradrachm, circa 450 B.C. Obverse, eagle standing to left; reverse, crab. Actual size approximately 25 mm.

sider with all they senses each thing in the way in which it is clear. Hold nothing that thou seest in greater credence than what thou hearest, nor value thy resounding ear above the clear instruction of thy tongue; and do not withhold thy confidence from any other bodily part by which there is an opening for understanding, but consider everything in the way in which it is clear."

His biological speculations have interest. He thought that the earth, when it was younger, had produced a much greater variety of things,

but that:

"many races of living things must have been unable to beget and continue their breed. For in the case of every species that now exists, either craft or courage or speed has from the beginning of its existence protected and preserved it." Here is a clear hint of the doctrine of the survival of the fittest.

By his experiments he also demonstrated the fact that the invisible air is something that can occupy space and exert power.

Croton

The coinage here, as elsewhere in Magna Graecia (Southern Italy), began about the middle of the sixth century B.C. One peculiarity of the coins of this area is that the reverse die of many of them is almost an intaglio impression of the obverse, so that when the dies were properly aligned, one side seemed almost to fit into the other.

In fabric the coinage of Croton resembles the first issue of the other Achaean colonies, and furnishes striking evidence of the close relations which at that period existed among them.

Croton was founded in 710 B.C., on the gulf which took its name from

the Dorian city of Tarentum (now Taranto).

For more than a century, it was second in importance to neighboring Sybaris. It gradually was sinking into the same condition of luxury and effeminacy. Then, about the middle of the sixth century, the philosopher Pythagoras, of Samos, settled there. Under the virtual rule of the Pythagorean brotherhood, Croton experienced a religious and political revival. It suddenly assumed a leading position among the Greek cities of Southern Italy.

Apparently the exact site of the ancient city is unknown today.



Silver stater, circa 550-480 B.C. Obverse, tripod and crane; reverse, same, incuse. Actual size approximately 24 mm.

PYTHAGORAS

Pythagoras was born about 570 B.C. on the island of Samos. About 530, the Persian conquest of Ionia caused him to flee to Croton.

The Pythagorean community which he founded there was a religious brotherhood for the practice of asceticism and the study of mathematics. The brethren were required every day to conduct, in private meditation, an examination of conscience. The peculiarity of the system was that it found in mathematics a key to the riddle of the universe and an instrument for the purification of the soul.

The school quickly registered remarkable advances in geometry and the theory of numbers. It generally is agreed that by the middle of the

fifth century, the school had arrived at most of the results which are systematized by Euclid (Alexandria 323-283) in books I, II, VII and IX of his "Elements". This is a scientific achievement of the first order.

The cosmology of the Pythagoreans is very curious and very important. They did not, like the Ionians, try to describe the universe in terms of the behavior of certain material elements and physical processes. They described it exclusively in terms of numbers. They called a point "one", a line "two", a surface "three", a solid "four", according to the minimum number of points necessary to define each of these dimensions.

Pythagoras paid great attention to the application of arithmetic to weights, measures and the theory of music.

Syracuse

The earliest coins of Syracuse belong to the time of the oligarchy of the Geomori or Gamori, who, as their name implies, were the legitimate descendants of the first colonists among whom the land was allotted.

The coins before 500 B.C. probably are the earliest examples of coin types referring to agonistic contests. That they do not, however, allude to any particular victory in the games is evident from the way in which the types are from the first made subservient to the denominations of the coins. Thus, the quadriga is made use of to indicate the tetra-

drachm, while two horses stand for a didrachm, and a man riding a single horse is the distinctive type of the drachma.

SYRACUSE, THE CITY

This city was founded B.C. 734 by a colony of Corinthians and other Dorians, led by Archias the Corinthian.

At the time of its greatest extension, under the elder Dionysius, it consisted of five distinct towns. The circumference was 180 stadia, or 22 English miles. The entire population of the city is supposed to have amounted to 500,000 at the time of



Silver tetradrachm, 485-479 B.C. Obverse, quadriga, crowned by Nike. Reverse, head of Arethusa, surrounded by four dolphins. Actual size approximately 22 mm.

its greatest prosperity.

The government of Syracuse originally was an aristocracy, and afterward a democracy, until Gelon made himself tyrant or sovereign in B.C. 485. Under his rule and that of his brother, Hieron, Syracuse was raised to an unexampled degree of wealth and prosperity.

AESCHYLUS

Aeschylus was born at Eleusis in Attica, 525 B.C.

As an author, he gained the prize of tragedy in 484. In 468 he was defeated in a tragic contest by his younger rival, Sophocles; and is said in consequence to have quitted Athens in disgust, and to have gone to the court of Hiero, in Syracuse.

The alterations made by Aeschylus

in the composition and dramatic representation of tragedy were so great that he was considered by the Athenians as the father of it. The principal alteration which he made was the introduction of a second actor, and the consequent formation of the dialogue properly so called, and the limitation of the choral parts. He furnished his actors with more suitable and magnificent dresses, with significant and various masks, and with the thick-soled cothurnus, to raise their stature to the height of heroes.

With him also arose the usage of representing at the same time a trilogy of plays connected in subject, so that each formed one act, as it were, of a great whole.

Names in History

By DR. C. GLENN CURTIS, *Brea*

Editor's Note: Dr. Curtis, one of the best known collectors in Southern California, has shown his series of slides to many clubs. The sketches below are taken from his notes or comments on the coins as he shows them.



The Widow's Mite

Of all my coins, I value this one the highest in sentiment, and strange as it may seem, this coin—in its

original value—was worth the least. The coin you see now is a Widow's Mite, which was the most preached about of all the coins mentioned in the Bible. This coin was minted and circulated during the years our Saviour was on earth; and while it may be a remote possibility, I like to think that Jesus may have handled this coin you see on the screen. In St. Luke, 12-59, Jesus says: "I tell thee thou shalt not depart thence, till thou hast paid the very last mite." In St. Mark 12-42, the Bible reads: "And there came a certain poor widow casting in thither two mites." St. Luke, incidentally, was a physician. The Widow's Mite was known as "beggar's money" because it had so little intrinsic value. While it is difficult to compare the original value of this coin with our present money, it is sure that it was worth but a fraction of our American cent. Front of the Widow's Mite portrays an ear of corn. The back of the coin shows a palm tree. Because these were Roman coins, the lettering was Roman instead of Jewish.

Collecting Ancient Roman Coins

By KURT E. LORET, San Francisco

(A talk given at PCNS meeting, San Francisco, Sept. 25, 1963.)

As a rule the collecting of ancient Roman coins is the result of a process of evolution and very few collectors have started with it. Let me tell you how I got into it.

Almost 50 years ago, when I was just finishing grammar school—and that's the time when every boy collects many things—I had a collection, or more precisely, an accumulation of coins. After all these years I still remember of having one octagon rupee of India and a Russian ruble. One day I was dreaming of the hot jungles of the equator, the next day of the frozen plains of Russia. But soon the dreams came to an end as my collection became part-payment of a trade-in for another boy's bicycle.

Years passed and my collecting of coins was dormant. As a young man I had a collection of European crowns, which I left with some relatives when we decided to go to the United States. Later on World War II broke out and when Czechoslovakia was "liberated" by the Russians, my collection was "liberated" from the relatives. Again collecting of coins came to a standstill, as nickels, dimes and dollars were used to sustain the family.

It was not until 22 years ago, in 1941, that I entered the field of ancient coins. At that time my son was a member of the Boy Scouts of America and intent on receiving as many merit badges as he possibly could; one of the requirements was to have and identify at least 100 coins. While buying some coins for him one day, at of all places Heist's taxidermy shop on Mission Street, we encountered and purchased a very peculiar looking piece. It took us one week, of dipping it in vinegar and baking soda and removing layer upon layer of corrosion with the point of a pin, to finally obtain a very fine and shiny piece of silver. There was the head of a man on the obverse and an eagle on the reverse and an unknown inscription.

While looking for some more coins for my son, we took the new treasure along to Bruno Crossfield on McAllister Street, to find out what we had bought somewhere else. Bruno couldn't identify it, but advised me to

come in on a Saturday afternoon when an "old man", who knew a lot about ancient coins, would be there. That is when and where I met William Kraft, one of the early members of PCNS. He informed me that we had purchased a tetradrachma of Ptolemy I of Egypt, about 2000 years old. William Kraft was not large physically, but by the yardstick of knowledge in his field his measurements were those of a giant! Many Saturday afternoon meetings followed and I learned a lot from him and many questions were answered.

Why does one collect ancient Roman coins?

First: One has no worries about recent or forthcoming issues since the period covered ended some 1500 years ago.

Second: One has no worries about the condition of coins, as does the collector of, for example, U.S. coins. A short while ago I read a classification—"almost brilliant uncirculated with small marks of bag handling." No such thing exists with ancient coins; we like our coins slightly cracked and otherwise mutilated. There are four grades: poor, good, fine and very fine. "Poor" means an ancient coin, plus frustration and headaches when one is unable to read the inscription. "Good" means one can read part of the inscription. "Fine", when one can read all of it; and "Very Fine" when the same coin is on a large flan, with excellent portrait, reverse figure, and when the entire coin is well patinated.

Third: One never has to worry about completing a set, such as one would have if collecting nickels and dimes. In one's entire lifetime he might be lucky to acquire a so-called type set of ancient coins. About 370,000 varieties of Roman coins were minted for a total of about 150 rulers, their wives, generals and various rebels. Let us pick out for instance one of them, the emperor Antoninus Pius, who, during the 23 years of his reign from 138 to 161 A.D., minted some 1684 varieties of reverses on sestertii or large bronzes. One must realize no newspaper, radio or television existed

in Rome. No means of communication other than the reverse of coins gave him a chance to let the people of his empire know what a great man he was.

Where are ancient Roman coins found?

According to the National Geographic Society, Roman highways stretched from Scotland to the Sahara, and from Spain to the border of India. Before the Roman Empire declined and fell, it had built almost 50,000 miles of first class roads, or twice the distance around the world. A Roman rode in the most luxurious carriage he could afford, and Caesar already was concerned about traffic congestion. Almost 2000 years before our cars were invented, he had banned parking in Rome's crowded districts. A rich Roman never had to carry more than 50 denarii in cash, because banks issued travelers checks at the considerable fee of 12% of their value. But 99% of all the transactions were strictly on a cash basis. Thousands upon thousands of soldiers constantly used the highways and in time of war, they, their paymasters, and the civilian population buried their money, since there was no other way to hide it. These hoards continue to be unearthed; just recently a bulldozer dug up 300 pounds of bronze 50 miles southwest of London, in Irchester, England.

One does not need to be rich to collect ancient coins, since the demand is not a great one. About 500 people in the United States, or one tenth of one per cent of the organized collectors, are interested in collecting Roman coins. The "good old days," when one could pick up ancient coins for 25c to \$1 each, are a thing of the past. However, when one knows his dealer, and refrains from buying gold coins or rare pieces of certain rulers, the coins are still reasonable and the price usually ranges from \$2 to \$5.

I have purposely avoided speaking on such specific subjects as the denomination of the coins, forgeries, and the mints of the Empire. A number of reasonably priced books are available which provide the basis for an appreciation of collecting ancient coins and which will develop a broader knowledge of history, the culture and customs, and the artistic merits of bygone times.

I will now read a paper I wrote in 1962, entitled "The Thirty Pieces of Silver."

As a collector of ancient coins, I have been asked many times: "How much in U.S. money today would the thirty pieces of silver for which Judas betrayed Christ be worth?"

No simple answer can be given. Therefore I should like to offer the following information, and the subject can be approached in two ways.

No mention is made anywhere of the denomination of the thirty pieces of silver. We can state without doubt, however, that the coins for which Christ was betrayed were Greek tetradrachm (four drachma). Nowhere in the New Testament does a valuation of these coins appear. However, we do know the rate of exchange at Rome. It was, in this case, four silver denarii for one tetradrachm. We also know the value of the denarii. The denarius is mentioned in the New Testament (Matt. 20:1, 2) as "being the day's wages of the common laborer." It is also mentioned (Luke 10:35) "as the amount of money paid to the innkeeper by the Good Samaritan for lodging."

If we estimate from the above, and from what we know about Roman and Greek coins, we can calculate the silver value of a denarius today as being approximately twenty cents. Thirty pieces of silver (tetradrachms) equal 120 denarii. One hundred and twenty denarii at twenty cents each equal twenty-four dollars, if we calculate from the silver value only.

If, however, we compute the value in terms of present day buying power, as compared with ancient Rome and Greek, we know then that the thirty pieces are equal to 120 days (or about 4½ months) wages of a common laborer. If we use, for example, the amount of fifteen dollars per day, as would be approximately correct for today, this gives us an approximate total of eighteen hundred dollars. If we use the cost of lodging and food, per day, at the average price of fifteen dollars per day, then we again arrive at an equivalent of eighteen hundred dollars.

In other words, any way you figure the amount in U.S. dollars, it was never a considerable.

Roman Coins Give Most Complete History

By THOMAS W. WARD, *Fallbrook*

It often has been said that every coin tells a story; this, of course, is true. But ancient Roman coins tell longer, more complete and varied stories than those of any other series.

Roman coin design and fabric parallel the history of one of the greatest empires the world ever has known—one that began as a poor feeble little settlement of farmers and herdsmen surrounded on all sides by powerful enemies, and yet eventually ruled practically all of the civilized world.

Whatever reasons you have for collecting coins, the same reasons will apply to Roman coins, and in most cases with more force.

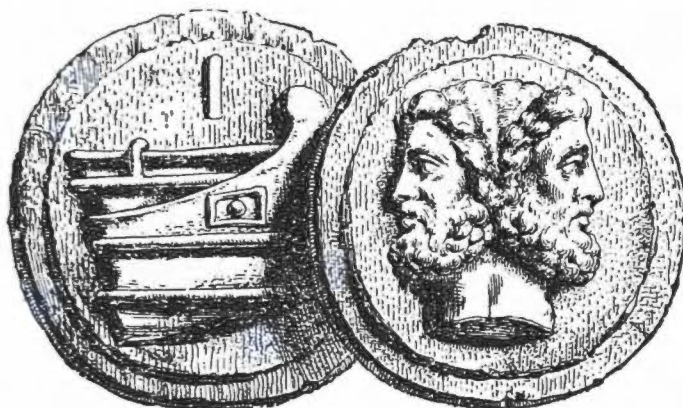
If you collect coins because of their age, Roman coins go back over 2000 years. If you collect coins because of their beauty of art and execution, the portraiture on Roman coins never has been surpassed, even by the Greeks at their best period. If you prefer crude and barbarous coins, some struck that kind, too.

If you are interested in history as shown on coins, there is no other series that shows so many historical references as the Roman. If you are interested in religion as coins show all of the great gods and most of the minor ones appear on Roman coins, as portraits, in full length, and engaged in divine activities. So do any mythological characters and mythological monsters. And on late imperial coins, Christian emblems begin to appear.

If you are interested in economics, the coinage of Rome is a running commentary on economics over many centuries; it is good or bad as conditions in the Empire were good or bad, and primitive or refined as the Romans were primitive or refined.

In these days of high prices there is another reason for collecting Roman coins. They do not cost much. Compared to that other great ancient

series, the Greek, prices are low. Many fine specimens are obtainable for a dollar or less; in the case of the Imperial "third bronze" which



Aes Grave, used in Rome and Central Italy 311-276 B.C. Obv.: Double Head of Janus; Rev.: Prow of galley. Made of bronze, these pieces were cast, not struck. —Cut courtesy E. A. Parker, San Francisco.

average about the size of a nickel, fine specimens sometimes can be obtained for only a few cents. Of course there are many high priced rarities; but even so, one could form a respectable collection of Roman coins without paying more than 50 cents for each piece.

Many other reasons might be given. For instance, in Roman coins we have a series that exists in no other group. That is, a complete series of coins from the most primitive rough cast bronze pieces up through finely designed and executed coins, and then a gradual decline as the coins become worse and worse, until final extinction.

This parallels the history of Rome. As Rome waxed and waned, so did the coinage. When Rome was a nation of simple men with simple tastes, the coinage, appropriately enough, was crude and primitive; this condition is found in the first Roman coins.

Prior to the issue of any coinage at all, the Romans had used bronze as a medium of exchange; it passed from hand to hand in the form of

rough lumps, bars, rings, and so on. It had to be weighed out for each transaction. With increasing trade, this became awkward, so the Romans hit upon the idea of casting round pieces of standard size and weight—and these were the first true coins. The unit was the as, weighing one pound, together with fractions such as the half, third, and so on. These coins were in effect simply the same bronze medium previously used, but now in a more convenient form.

It is remarkable that the Romans should have issued such a crude



DENARIUS OF BRUTUS
Commemorating Ides of March

coinage. For centuries previously the Greeks had been using very fine coins and the Romans were thoroughly familiar with them; normally they had no hesitation about adapting someone else's good ideas to their own use, but in this case they paid no attention to precedent, and began their coinage just a short step above the barter stage.

Life gradually became more refined, foreign trade developed, and Rome embarked on a career of conquest. These crude bronze coins were then no longer adequate for new needs. The foreign nations with which Rome came in contact demanded a silver coinage, so one was begun in 269 B.C. At first rather crude, these silver coins improved until by the close of the Republic in 27 B.C., some nice pieces were produced.

By the beginning of the Empire then, the coin workmanship was of a high standard, and under the early emperors it improved until it reached its highest point. Under these first emperors the Empire reached a high stage, and the coins show it. The early portraits are beautiful, of a quality never excelled. Under later emperors the Empire slowly declined, and the coins declined along with it. The art work remains fairly good

until the end of the reign of Philip I in 249. But things became worse—and so did the coinage—until by the beginning of the fourth century the portraits become so conventionalized that all the emperors look about the same on their coins. Bad times for Rome resulted in bad coinage.

The reign of the Emperor Gallienus (253-268) was about the lowest point in Roman history before the final fall of Rome; it was a period of all kinds of domestic and foreign disturbances: war, plague, famine, rebellion, financial breakdown, and almost every form of hardship which can afflict a nation. Therefore, the coins of this ruler are very poor—about the poorest Rome ever produced. They are crude to the point of barbarism, and debased to the point of worthlessness.

Later emperors tried from time to time to improve the nation—and the coinage—but such improvements always were only temporary, and the decline was general. By the beginning of the fifth century when Rome was on the point of final collapse, the coin portraits had degenerated to hardly more than crude drawings of little relief. And after the fall of Rome the coins struck in Constantinople became even worse; the portraits no longer look even human, but resemble cartoons or rough sketches such as a child might draw.

With a few exceptions, it was the custom of the Roman emperors to show on their coins either their own portraits or those of a member of their family, with their own portraits in the great majority. Thus, Imperial coins show a picture gallery of all the emperors, the good and able men as well as the wastrels and incompetents. Occasionally an emperor struck coins with portraits of illustrious predecessors, Augustus being the one chiefly honored this way.

Some imperial characters are known only from their coins. The Empress Paulina is an example; nothing is known about her, but her coins exist. The same thing is true of some of the rebel emperors of the third century; we know little or nothing about them, excepting from the coins. Of one obscure emperor, Marius, we know only that he was an armorer who became emperor in Gaul, and that he ruled for only three days when he was murdered—but even during those three days he managed to strike coins. So it seems

that the coinage must have been the first thing that a new emperor gave his attention.

I have mentioned portraits of members of Imperial families. Augustus struck coins showing his grandsons Caius and Lucius who were destined to succeed him, but died young. He also struck the portraits of his great general and admirer, Agrippa. Caligula struck coins bearing the portrait of his mother, Agrippina I. Claudius honored his father Drusus I and his mother Antonia on his coins. Elagabalus even carried it to the extreme of showing his grandmother, Julia Maesa. Most emperors showed their wives on coins.

As I wish mainly to point out a few facts about Roman Republican coins, I will say no more about the Imperial series.

To return to the antiquity of Roman coins, they do not go so far back as those of Greece. It is not known definitely when the first Roman coin was made. Originally it was believed to have been during the times of the kings, which would make it prior to 509 B.C. Later study modified this date to about 450 B.C., and now many modern students set the date at about 312 B.C. There is nothing on the earliest coins to indicate a date, and the literary evidence is conflicting and unsatisfactory. A passage in Pliny definitely would assign the bronze coins to the times of the kings.

Regardless of the exact date when



DENARIUS OF TIBERIUS
14-37 A.D.

These first cast bronze coins were made, they were in use at the time of the Pyrrhic War (280-278 B.C.). And that war had its effect on the coinage. The one pound as had already declined somewhat in weight, possibly as a matter of convenience, but the war cut its weight still more.

Faced with great war expenses, the Romans made the coins much smaller, thus making more money from the same amount of material. Once reductions were started, they kept on. The as was reduced to a half pound, then to two ounces, then to an ounce, and finally to a half ounce, when it went out of circulation completely. These reductions were spread out over many years, although the first ones were abrupt.

The first silver coinage begun in 269 B.C. was somewhat on the Greek model; in this case the Romans did not ignore a good example. The unit, the denarius, was valued at ten asses and is about the size of our dime. A half denarius or quinarius and a quarter denarius or sestertius also were struck. Most of the early silver pieces cannot be attributed to a certain year, as they bear no identifying marks. They all are of the same design; the helmeted head of Roma on the obverse and Castor and Pollux on horseback on the reverse, the only inscription being the word ROMA. However, it is possible to date them approximately.

After a few years some coiners began placing emblems or symbols on their coins. These usually were on the reverse and consisted of small objects, such as a dog or other animal, a dolphin, star, or anchor. We do not know the meanings of very many of these, but obviously they are control marks of some kind; they may be mint marks, or they may serve to identify certain issues or dies. Some of them may indicate the names of the coiners, as at a later period some certainly do. Presently the coiners began placing their initials on coins either with or without the symbols; and with these initials we begin to get clues as to the names of the strikers. Later, the initials are succeeded by abbreviated names, at first in very short abbreviations but becoming longer until practically the whole name of the coiner is shown. On these we can identify the coiner and so date the coin.

The original designs — Roma on the obverse and Castor and Pollux on the reverse — persisted for about a century, but eventually changes began. The first major change was in the reverse design, and Castor and Pollux were replaced by Diana in a chariot. There was a sound political

reason for this change. The original design celebrated the Roman victory over the Latin League at the Battle of Lake Regillus in 498 B.C. According to legend, the Romans were losing this battle, when Castor and Pollux descended from heaven to fight for Rome, and so turned defeat into victory. Therefore for many years Rome honored them on her coins.

However as time went on, the Latins were no longer enemies of Rome, but became friends and allies, so it was poor taste to continue commemorating their defeat. It would appear that the Diana reverse was deliberately chosen to flatter the Latins, as Diana of Aricia was one of their chief divinities. But despite this, Castor and Pollux appear from time to time for many years.

The next changes that appear are in the charioteers. Other gods and goddesses drive them: Jupiter, Juno Mars, Apollo and others, as well as some semi-divine heroes such as Hercules. The Winged Victory appears as a chariot driver, and by the end of the Republic was the most common of all. Sometimes instead of horses, the chariots are drawn by animals sacred or dedicated to the god, goddess, or hero driving them; Diana sometimes drives stags as she is goddess of the hunt; Juno drives goats, the goat being her animal; Hercules drives Centaurs, the half-man, half-horse creatures with which he was closely associated. An unusual team is a pair of snakes drawing the chariot of Ceres on a late Republican coin.

Radically different reverses next begin. Before describing some of them, it might be well to explain the reasons for the choice of designs. The Roman mint worked under a system which may seem peculiar to us. Each year three men were appointed as coiners or masters of the mint, with authority to strike coins as they saw fit. Each of them was permitted to strike coins with or without the cooperation of the other two. So in some years we find only one man issuing coins; in others two or all three; and some years pass with no coins struck. Of course it is possible that coins actually were struck during these years, but that they have not yet been discovered.

In Rome at that time it was considered bad taste to show a living person on coins — much in line with

our own views in this country — but there was no objection to showing divinities or dead persons. So the coiners, being unable to show themselves or to advertise their own accomplishments on coins, discovered another way of glorifying themselves indirectly. This was to show a reference to the accomplishments of some distinguished ancestors and thus praise their family, and incidentally themselves.

As an example, a coiner in 114 B.C. was named Minucius. An ancestor of the same name once supplied Rome with grain during a critical time of threatened famine, and the grateful citizens erected a monument to him, each man contributing one ounce of bronze toward the project. So Minucius the coiner struck a reverse showing this monument with the earlier Minucius standing beside it, thus basking in reflected glory.

Cassius was a coiner in 54 B.C. A previous Cassius had reformed the voting laws, so this Cassius shows on a reverse a citizen casting a ballot. One of his colleagues that year was Paullus Aemilius, a descendant of the Aemilius who defeated and captured Perseus, King of Macedonia; therefore his reverse shows Perseus and his sons as Roman prisoners.

The third coiner in 54 B.C. was Aquilius. An earlier Aquilius had suppressed a very serious slave insurrection in Sicily, so the coiner's reverse shows that general raising a kneeling woman representing Sicily. He even placed the word SICIL below the picture, so the reference would be sure to be understood. A curious reference to an ancestor is found on the coins of Antestius Labeo in 174 B.C. It is in the form of a small dog, one of the symbols previously mentioned; and in this case we definitely know its meaning. One of the coiner's ancestors was a sailor; his ship came too close to the shore one night, but was warned away through the crew's hearing the barking of a dog. So the coiner honored the dog which saved his ancestor and his ship.

After the death of Caesar, Brutus placed his ancestor, the first Brutus, expeller of the kings, on his coins. But by that time the sentiment against portraits of living persons had passed, and so Brutus, like many of his contemporaries, sometimes placed his own portrait on his coins.

The event in which the coiner's ancestor was involved did not even have to be historical; it could be legendary or even mythological. In 129 B.C. Fostulus struck a reverse showing Romulus and Remus under the wolf and being discovered by the Fostulus whom the coiner claimed as an ancestor. In the same way Accoleius in 43 B.C. struck a coin with the theoretical portrait of Acca Larentia, the foster mother of Romulus and Remus and supposedly his own ancestor.

Sometimes descent was claimed from a god or goddess, and then that god or goddess is featured on the coins. The most prominent example is the case of Julius Caesar who claimed descent from Venus through Aeneas. Therefore he placed Venus on many of his coins and Aeneas on some of them. Of course a man with the practical sense of Caesar probably didn't believe his own claims, but anyway it was good propaganda.

These few examples will show how the mentality of the Roman coiners worked, and how the tremendous variety of coin designs came about. The coiners had the whole history, tradition, and religion of Rome to draw on. Hundreds of other ancestral references might be mentioned.

But not all Roman Republican coins have ancestral references; many refer to general Roman interests — although even here there may be ancestral references which we cannot detect but which were plain to the Romans. Historical and legendary references are very common. Castor and Pollux have been mentioned. Other traditions shown on coins are the abduction of the Sabine women, the death of the traitress Tarpeia, and many others. Many coins show buildings or other structures long gone; the coins are the only representations of them which exist. Examples are the Villa Publica where ambassadors were received, the temple to Julius Caesar erected on the spot where his body was burned, the Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, and a host of other temples.

The Marcian Aqueduct is shown, and so is the Rostrum with its decoration of prows of ships captured at Antium — the modern Anzio where the American forces landed in Italy. I might point out that this is where our word "rostrum" originates; "ros-

trum" is the Latin word for "beak" and therefore was applied to the prow of a war ship. When the prows of the Antiate ships were set up at the Tribunal or speaker's platform in the Forum, the name gradually became transferred to the platform itself.

Statues are numerous on Roman coins. The monument to Minucius has been mentioned. Additional examples are the statues of Marsyas, Venus Cloacina, Marcius Philippus, Roma, and others. Roman paintings have perished with the exception of some murals preserved at Pompeii and Ostia, but at least one remains on a coin reverse. The Elder Pliny mentions one of Aurora leading the sun horses, and we find this on a coin of Plautius Plancus struck in 45 B.C.

Religion is strong on Roman coins. All of the great gods and goddesses appear, both as portraits and in full length — Jupiter, Juno, Neptune, Venus, Mars, Minerva, and all the rest. In addition to these are representations of the more obscure divine characters, as Mutinus, Vacuna, Fontus, and others. These are old primitive Italian gods who gradually passed into the background before the worship of the great gods. But they kept their followers in rural districts and never were entirely forgotten — and so they also appear on coins. The particular private gods of each Roman household, the Lares and Penates, appear on a number of coins. Each Roman had a guiding spirit, a genius, and this genius, too, is shown.

Many mythological characters appear on coins, with Hercules as the most popular. So do mythological animals and monsters; Pegasus, the Sphinx, Medusa, Scylla, the Calydonian Boar, and the Nemean Lion are just a few of these. Legendary personages such as Romulus and other traditional kings are common.

Even Roman humor is represented on coins, in the form of puns. The Romans were very fond of puns. A coiner named Purpureo (214 B.C.) placed a murex on his coins; this is the purpura or "purple fish" from which purple dye was made. Malleolus means "mallet" and so a coiner of that name placed a mallet on his coins in 89 B.C. Pansa in 43 B.C. used a portrait of Pan for an obverse; Papirius featured a papyrus;

and there are many others such.
All that I have said is very sketchy
and incomplete, but no article on

Roman coins can be otherwise. The
subject simply is too extensive.

Names in World History

AUGUSTUS CAESAR

29 B.C. - 14 A.D.

By DR. C. GLENN CURTIS, Brea

The history books tell us that this man made a mighty good ruler for the Roman people for 43 years. Augustus Caesar was not his real name. It was a title.

The Roman Senate in 27 B.C. wanted to honor the man whom Caesar had selected to be the first Emperor of Rome. They conferred on him the title, "Augustus", which had been used before only in conjunction with Roman gods.



His real name was Caius Octavius Coepius. He was the grandnephew of Julius Caesar.

It seems that in 44 B.C. the Senate made Julius Caesar the perpetual dictator of Rome. He was murdered shortly afterward and when his will was read, Mark Antony, Caesar's trusted lieutenant, was bitterly disappointed because it named one of his kinfolk as his successor.

Augustus Caesar and Mark Antony became bitter enemies and things looked pretty bad for both of them until Antony went down to Egypt to do some heavy lovemaking with Julius' old girl friend, Cleopatra. In 31 B.C., Augustus totally defeated Antony in battle and shortly afterward Antony committed suicide. Cleo was so lonesome because her two lover boys were dead and she had no likely prospects for the immediate future, that she got hold of a little snake to bite her on the neck. This finished her off in short order.

Augustus was very suspicious of everybody around him for fear that he would meet the same fate as Julius Caesar. However, he lived to the ripe old age of 77 with no more serious difficulties except two divorces which were either not his fault or were obtained for the good of the empire.

Pictured enlarged is a silver cistophoric medallion, struck about 27 B.C. in the East, probably at Pergamum. Obv.: Head of Augustus, bare. IMP. CAESAR. Rev.: Capricorn, right, head turned back, on its back a cornucopiae; around, laurel-wreath; AVGVSTVS. BMC 287 var. The Cistophori coins had been used in Asia Minor since 200 B.C. and it was natural for the Romans to continue them.

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MARCUS JUNIUS BRUTUS

Brutus and his pal, Cassius, were still holding hands when this coin was struck, 44-42 B.C., Cassius probably hanging on for dear life for fear Brutus would work one hand loose and ram a dagger in his back as he'd done to Julius Caesar in 44 B.C.

How and why Brutus got mixed up with the Cassius mob is old stuff pretty well covered by Bill Shakespeare, who wrote the script. It does seem, though, as if Brutus did a real sneaky thing by touting himself into being a triggerman for the Caesar caper.

After all, Caesar had been his buddy. When Julius polished off Pompey in Persia, he found Brutus hanging around Pompey's pavilion, took a liking to him, and gave him a job as one of Rome's ward heelers. And for that Brutus stuck a shiv in the guy's back! That's politics.

Brutus had to take it on the lam, of course, but not before he'd had his phiz frozen into this Roman denarius. Before he could pass out many of them as souvenirs, one of Cleopatra's couchmen, Mark Antony, and a mobster named Octavian, cornered him and his gang at Philippi.

The Brutus outfit was run out of town and Brutus, feeling a mite sorry for himself, did the Roman equivalent of "hari-kari".

That's one way to beat arteriosclerosis.

The coin portrayed is a Roman denarius struck in the East, 44-42 B.C. Obverse, head of Apollo, laureate; around, COSTA LEG (Pedanius Costa, legate who served under Brutus). Reverse, trophy of cuirass, crested helmet, shield and two spears (These trophies refer to the victories of Brutus in Greece).



CONSTANTINE THE GREAT

A lot of history was made during the reign of Flavius Valerius Constantinus, the noble-looking gent pictured on this page. Known as Constantine the Great, he was one of the good Roman emperors.

Constantine became a Caesar in

306 A.D., when, after the death of his father, Constantius I, Chlorus, Constantine's army proclaimed him successor. He was acknowledged as ruler of the territories beyond the Alps.

The Roman Empire then was having one of its many upheavals, with



as many as four emperors ruling at the same time.

Constantine became Augustus in 308. After much fighting, he became sole ruler of Rome in 323 A.D., having disposed of both Maxentius and Licinius. He ruled wisely until his death at Nicodemia in 337.

It was Constantine who, deciding that there should be two capitals of the Empire, founded Constantinople as the Eastern capital. He transferred the Imperial Government there in 330 A.D.

As Christians, our guest portrayed here is of particular interest because Constantine was the first Roman emperor to forsake paganism and become a Christian. He was baptised shortly before his death.

He also designated Sunday as a general holiday, treated both pagans and Christians with respect, and gave peace and security to the Roman Empire from England to Egypt.

The front of this remarkable coin shows profile with the lettering "CONSTANTINVS PF AVG", the latter meaning "Father of his country, supreme, elevated".

This particular reverse shows the sun god standing, with the lettering, "SOLI INVICTO COMITI", saying something about "To the only invincible army".

Julio-Claudian Dynasty Women

By KURT E. LORET, San Francisco

A Roman Emperor was never an emperor nor did he hold imperial office in the sense that later emperors of Europe did. Rather, he held a number of offices concurrently (such as commander-in-chief of the armed forces, consul, etc.) as well as a number of honors, some of them divine, all of which kept him and the members of his family above the level of the average Roman citizen.

What was the status of the families of such men — particularly their wives? According to law and custom these women were not allowed to hold any public office; they could share only the divine rank of the men. It is the coinage of ancient Rome which provides the story of their rank and of their varied for-

tures. The Roman emperors gradually came to be thought of as divine — at first only posthumously; this also was true of their wives and other members of their immediate families.

With respect to the women of the Julio-Claudian dynasty, the first portrait coin bearing the face of a woman was that of Livia, struck posthumously by her son, Emperor Tiberius. Livia, a member of the Claudian house, had been kidnaped by Augustus and had later become his wife. At her insistence, he had adopted Tiberius, a child by her previous marriage, and thus made him heir to the Empire.

Augustus' only daughter by his first marriage (he was thrice-married) was Julia. She too was thrice-mar-



AGRIPPINA, DRUSILLA and JULIA, sisters of Caligula; LIVIA, wife of Emperor Augustus; JULIA, daughter of Augustus.

ried; and her second husband, Agrippa, a close friend of Augustus, served as an admiral for him. However, a series of scandals arising from her widely-publicized immoral behavior forced Augustus to banish her from Rome. The rare coins which show Julia's portrait bear either her likeness, or that of her father and herself.

Despite her banishment, Julia's grandson was to become Emperor of Rome. Tiberius, who was himself without an heir, had no choice but to appoint Caligula as his successor. Caligula was the son of Tiberius' nephew Germanicus and of Julia's daughter, Agrippina the Elder. Germanicus was the son of Antonia (daughter of Mark Anthony) and Nero Claudius Drusus.

Following the death of Agrippina the Elder (by her own hand while a prisoner) her portrait was placed on coinage by her son, Caligula, since it was politically advantageous for him to do so. She had, after all, been the very model of a Roman matron during her lifetime, and her husband also had been extremely popular.

Caligula, a despot, and in his later career quite obviously insane, not only desired that he himself be considered divine but also claimed the same honor for his three sisters. A coin bearing the likenesses of Agrippina, Drusilla and Julia commemorates this event. However, when Drusilla died, the two remaining sisters fell from favor. Eventually Caligula, his wife Caesonia, and their infant

were murdered by the army, which then proclaimed Claudius, brother of Germanicus, as successor.

Claudius, although basically a "good" emperor, seemed to have particularly poor luck in choosing his wives. He discovered a plot by Messalina to murder him and to place her most recent lover on the throne as his successor. Messalina was put to death, and it seems justifiable that he then struck coins bearing the portrait of his mother, Antonia. Claudius later married Agrippina the Younger, whose son Nero (by a former marriage) was adopted by Claudius at her urging. Nero, as a dutiful son, showed his gratitude, first by placing her portrait on the imperial coinage of Rome, then later by ordering her death by drowning. He also murdered his first wife (and step-sister) Octavia, daughter of Tiberius, whom he had married to obtain the throne. Nero then married Poppaea, who bore him Claudia, a child who died in infancy. Poppaea herself expired as the result of a kick administered by Nero.

With the eventual death of Nero by suicide in 68 A.D., the Julio-Claudian dynasty came to an end.

* * *

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Biblical Numismatics

By G. R. HALLIDAY, *Los Angeles*

Many of us are familiar with the beautiful stories and historical events recorded in the Scripture and we know that a number of them refer directly or indirectly to coins. Through the collecting and study of these ancient pieces, new interest and added charm are given to the Bible narratives. By means of Biblical coins we are transported, as it were, swiftly back across the centuries to the times and places of the recorded events.

The term "money" is used in the Bible as far back as the time of Abram, some 1900 years before the birth of Christ, but the word has been inserted by the translators. It does not appear in the original text. Actual coins were not struck until about 800 B.C.

In the early stages of Old Testament life, cattle (which included herds of oxen, asses, camels, and horses, as well as flocks of sheep and goats) represented the principal wealth of the people. This wealth was used in direct barter and also as a medium of exchange. However, large transactions were made by the transfer of crude lumps and cast ingots of gold or silver. In Gen. 13:2

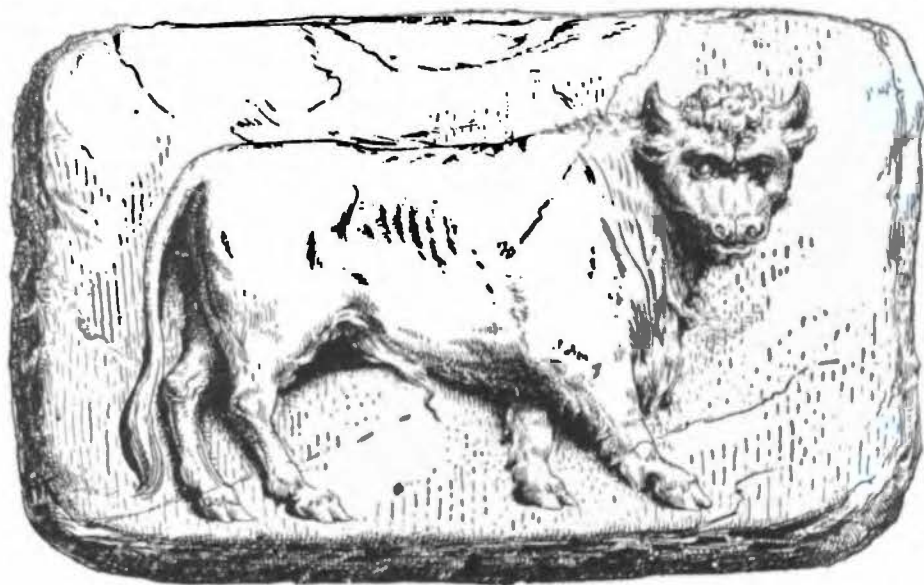
we read, "And Abram was very rich in cattle, in silver, and in gold."

Articles of personal adornment in the form of earrings, and bracelets worn on arms and ankles, also were accepted readily in business dealings. Both the metal pieces and items of jewelry were weighed out as needed and their value reckoned in shekels and talents, a weight system which was in extensive use during the period preceding the captivity.

The word "pecuniary" is derived from the Latin "pecunia," money, which in turn is taken from "pecus," (a flock of sheep or a herd of cattle).

Not until after the subjugation of Babylon by the Persians under Cyrus (538 B.C.) and his proclamation (foretold in Isa. 44:28) to God's people granting them their liberty after 70 years in captivity to return to Jerusalem and rebuild their temple (536 B.C.), do we find definite coins mentioned in the Old Testament.

"They gave after their ability unto the treasure of the work threescore and one thousand drams of gold, and five thousand pound of silver, and one hundred priests' garments." (Ezra 2:69).
In the American Revised Version



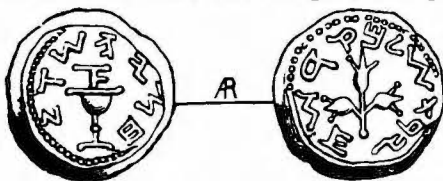
Artist's conception of Aes Signatum, after B.C. 450. This "original" money, very rare, had the value of one head of cattle. The artist has the bull facing in the wrong direction and has drawn the detail too fine; otherwise, the coin is as pictured, the stance — positions of legs, head, tail, etc., being the same.

the phrase, "darics of gold," instead of "drams of gold," is given. The word "darics" is considered to be a more accurate translation and refers to the small gold coins issued by the Persians. On these coins can be seen what is assumed to be Darius the king in the kneeling position of an archer with a bow in his left hand and a short lance in his right. The chief weapon of the Persians at that time was the bow. It was by overwhelming their enemies under a hail of arrows that their victories were won.

The coins of Alexander the Great, while not mentioned in the Bible, could, nevertheless, be classified as being inter-related to Biblical history. The profound impression his amazing conquests made upon the people of his day resulted in the spreading of the language and culture of Greece until it became world-wide in scope.

The coins of the Jews, of course, belong in the collection of Biblical money. In this respect, Israel has supplied us with a real puzzle. I refer to the silver shekels struck by the Jewish people as a nation, during one of the few times in their history when they were not completely dominated by a foreign power.

The inscription on the obverse of these coins reads "Shekel Israel" and shows a jeweled chalice, generally considered to be the cup or pot containing the manna which was placed in the sanctuary. "And Moses said unto Aaron, Take a pot, and put



Shekel of Israel
(Reduced Size)

an omer full of manna therein, and lay it up before the Lord, to be kept for your generations." (Ex. 16:33).

The Hebrew on the reverse reads "Jerusalem the Holy." The design is that of a triple lily. "I will be as the dew unto Israel: he shall grow as the lily . . ." (Hos. 14:5). However, the usual interpretation is that it represents Aaron's rod that "budded and brought forth buds, and bloomed blossoms, and yielded almonds." (Num. 17:8) and which, like

the cup of manna, also was laid up before the Lord (Num. 17:10).

Just when these coins (shekels and half-shekels) were issued is a question which perplexes numismatists. They have been assigned by some to the time of Ezra and by others to the period of Simon Maccabaeus. A third group of scholars attribute them to the First Revolt of the Jews against Rome (A.D. 66-70). The keeper of the coins of the British Museum adheres to this latter view.

Moving on from Old Testament history and events to New Testament ground, it is interesting to digress for a moment and note how God uses men and nations to further His plans. It was no mere coincidence that the exploits of Alexander paved the way for the language of Greece to become a universal tongue. Thus, when Jesus proclaimed the gospel of salvation to all mankind, a language recognized as the most perfect vehicle of human speech, then devised, was ready to carry His message throughout the world.

" . . . when the fulness of the time was come, God sent forth his Son, made of a woman . . ."
(Gal. 4:4).

Our Lord, the Prince of Peace, was born when peace prevailed, not only in Judea, but in neighboring countries as well. The Emperor Augustus had placed permanent garrisons along the frontiers of his vast domain to preserve law and order, and had issued a decree that a census be taken for the purpose of taxation, little dreaming that he, too, was being used of God, in this case to usher in, in fulfillment of prophecy, the greatest event in the history of mankind: the birth of Jesus, the Christ, at Bethlehem.

The coin most frequently mentioned in the New Testament is the so-called penny of the Bible. We find this coin referred to in the "Parable of the Laborers in the Vineyard." (Matt. 20:2. " . . . when he had agreed with his laborers for a penny a day . . . "). Then when the Pharisees sought to entangle Jesus with the question as to whether or not He thought it lawful to pay tribute to Caesar, He asked them to show Him the tribute money. They brought to Him a penny. "Whose is this image and superscription?" Jesus asked. They answered, "Caesar's." Then He said to them, "Render

therefore unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's; and unto God the things that are God's." (Matt. 22:15-22).

The coin referred to in practically every instance as a penny is the Roman denarius, a silver coin somewhat similar in size to our 10-cent piece. The name "penny" undoubtedly comes from the silver penny of England which was in popular circu-



Tribute Penny of Tiberius

lation at the time the King James Version of the Bible was translated. Therefore, the coin which was handed to our Lord as the tribute money was, it is reasonable to believe, a denarius of Tiberius, emperor at that time.

Only Jewish coins were permitted in the temple treasury and it was the business of the money changers to change, for a small consideration, heathen money into Jewish. The smallest Jewish coin extant during the lifetime of our Lord was the lepton of the Macabees and it is considered to be the "widow's mite," mentioned in Mark 12:41-44.

The farthing is one of the small bronze coins struck in Judea by the Roman administrators, under authority of the emperor, for circulation among the Jews. It is to be noted that, in consideration of the strong religious feelings of the Children of Israel, no portrait of the reigning caesar appears on them. To have forced the issue would have been to incite a riot, for the second commandment — "Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image . . ." (Ex. 20:4) — was a stern reality to the Jew. Thus we see an Augustus or a Tiberius bowing to the will of Jehovah in the proudest prerogative of his monarchy, that of placing his own image on the coinage of the realm.

The money produced in the fish's mouth by the miracle of our Lord was a tetradrachm or, as it was then

called, a stater. This was the largest silver coin in general use in Palestine and neighboring countries. For purposes of reckoning it was considered equal in value to a Jewish shekel, two half-shekels, or four Roman denarii.

The 30 pieces of silver paid to Judas for the betrayal of Christ were, no doubt, also tetradrachms. In Ex. 21:32 we note that 30 shekels is the price to be paid to an owner upon the accidental death of his slave; and in Matt. 27:3-8 the 30 pieces of silver are referred to as "the price of blood." Here, too, we must conclude that the 4-drachm pieces were reckoned as equal in value to the traditional shekels. Tetradrachms bearing the portrait of Augustus from the nearby mint at Antioch most likely formed the bulk of the money paid for the treachery, as these pieces were more numerous among the coins circulating in Judea during the life of the Master. However, tetradrachms of Syria, Egypt, and Phoenicia also could have been used in making up the 30 pieces, as they all were current at that time.

I would like to quote from Scripture a prophecy which the Lord Himself made referring to the destruction of the temple in Jerusalem. "And Jesus went out, and departed from the temple: and His disciples came to Him for to shew Him the build- ings of the temple. And Jesus said unto them, See ye not all these things? Verily I say unto you, There shall not be left here one stone upon another, that shall not be thrown down." (Matt. 24:1,2).

The first revolt of the Jews against Rome broke out in 66 A.D. This insurrection lasted four years. The Jewish forces held out against the power of Rome with a stubbornness born of a religious fanaticism that was superhuman, until Titus (son of the Emperor Vespasian) reached Jerusalem with his legions in the spring of 70 A.D. Forcing the siege, he took the city. Strict instructions were issued that the beautiful temple building, one of the wonders of the world of that day, was to be preserved intact, but a drunken soldier threw a flaming torch within its walls, setting it afire. When the flames subsided, the looting commenced and it soon was noticed that the heavy gold plate used ornamentally on the face of the white marble blocks, had

melted and run between the stones. In their efforts to obtain the precious metal, the looters literally tore the building apart and the prophecy of Jesus was thereby fulfilled. Not one stone was left upon another.

To commemorate the capture of Jerusalem, the triumphal Arch of Titus, adorned with representations of the seven-branched golden candlestick and the chalice taken from the temple, was erected in Rome and coins bearing the legend JUDAEA

CAPTA were struck.

Since their invention, some 800 years before the birth of the Savior, coins can be looked upon as monuments of history in miniature. They tell us a vivid story of men and events, clearly revealing the thought and life of the people issuing them. The Biblical pieces bear witness, in no uncertain manner, to the authenticity of the Book of Life, God's Holy Word, the Bible.

Coins of Christianity

By KURT E. LORET, San Francisco

The history of a people is written on its money, each coin forming a link in a chain of metal disks recording the customs, character, and frequently the dress and personal adornments of nations; or commemorating great persons.

In Judea, the Herodian rulers, as well as the Roman procurators, struck coins. These humble pieces of copper are monuments to the accuracy and harmony of the gospels. Many of the pieces can be dated, and it is interesting to observe that the Jews, in deference to the Second Commandment, did not place the images of individuals on their coinage.

A denarius of Rome shows the head of Caesar Augustus, ruler at the time of Jesus' birth. Such a coin may have been carried by Joseph when he took Mary into Bethlehem to pay his tax, since the denarius was commonly used by the Judeans to pay their head tax to Rome.

A lepton commemorates Herod, who was king of Judea on the first Christmas. A puppet ruler under Rome, Herod is known to every child who attends Sunday school as the

king who instructed the Wise Men to inform him of the whereabouts of the infant Jesus, so that he, too, might join in honoring a child whose birth had caused a new star to appear — even as he planned a wholesale slaughter of the children of Judea.

Another piece is the drachma, a small silver coin which weighs 1/8 of an ounce. You may recall the parable of the "lost coin". "Either what woman having ten pieces of silver, if she lose one piece, doth not light a candle, and sweep the house, and seek diligently till she find it?" The woman, it is explained, searches because the coin means more to her than mere money. According to an ancient custom in the orient, the husband presented his bride with a headpiece hung with ten such pieces, an ornament with much the same meaning as is given to the wedding ring today. A wife found guilty of infidelity submitted to the removal of one of the coins by the judges before whom she was tried.

A mite, struck at the order of Pontius Pilate, had a value equal to about 1/5 of a cent. It was two mites given up by a widow which caused



BRONZE LEPTON — Pontius Pilate, procurator under Tiberius, A.D. 26-36. On obverse, augur's wand; on reverse, date, year 14. It was Pilate who delivered Jesus to be crucified. Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea. All coins illustrated have been enlarged.



MEDALLION OF CAESAR AUGUSTUS, ABOUT 27 B.C.



SHEKEL OF ISRAEL, FIRST REVOLT



BRONZE OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, 306-337 A.D.



WIDOW'S MITE

Jesus to commend her above the rich men with their impressive gifts.

Of equal interest is a bronze coin of Constantine, which marks the beginning of the age of tolerance of Christianity. Persecution of Christians was commonplace when he came to power in 306 A.D. The story is told that he beheld a flaming cross in the heavens above the inscription, "In Hoc Signo Vinctes" (Under this sign ye shall conquer.) Later, the legend continues, Christ appeared and bade him accept the fiery cross as his standard.



CLEOPATRA VII, last queen of Egypt. Roman silver denarius of Mark Antony (left, enlarged) shows her diademed bust, draped, right, prow before. Reverse of the coin shows bare head of Antony. Bronze coin of Ptolemaic mint (right, enlarged) shows fairly young face in profile, to left.

Ptolemaic Queens

By CECELIA HUTT, San Francisco

Most historians say that the Ptolemaic queens, descended from Alexander's marshal, were, for the most part, as courageous and spirited as the Macedonian soldier who was their ancestor. Some add that they also were cruel, avaricious and unscrupulous. These vices, though, were characteristics as well of the Ptolemaic kings, who were blood-relatives of most of their queens. Historians are not always unbiased, and the records show that several of the Macedonian queens of Egypt stayed in the background and led quiet lives. Perhaps one or two of the others acted as they did in self-defense. It was, after all, a rough and rugged era.

Berenice I. There is no evidence that Berenice I had ambitions to be anything other than queen consort. She was a Macedonian widow with two children and lady-in-waiting to the wife of Ptolemy I, Eurydice, when Ptolemy fell in love with her and married her. The king later decided to have his son by her succeed him rather than Ptolemy Ceraunus, son of Eurydice. There are bronze coins showing Ptolemy I, with Berenice on the reverse. There are others (rare)

showing the head of Berenice and the monogram of the king of Cyrenaica, Magas, who was the son of Berenice by her previous marriage. Ptolemy II instituted the system of deifying the Ptolemies, and had coins made showing himself and Arsinoe II, with the legend, *Adelphon*, on obverse, and his parents and the word *Theon* on reverse. Ptolemy I and Berenice I became known as the Saviour Gods.

Arsinoe I, daughter of Lysimachus, was the first wife of Ptolemy II. There isn't much information about her, but she seems to have been an unpretentious queen and dutiful wife. More of her story is told in the next paragraph.

Arsinoe II. It is obvious from the portraits on the coins of this queen that she was very pretty. There is little doubt that she was a selfish, ambitious, politically-minded woman who wasn't very squeamish about her methods for acquiring power. When she was very young she was married to the King of Thrace, Lysimachus, who, like her father, Ptolemy I, was one of the successors of Alexander and, therefore, was very much her senior. Many writers say that Arsinoe

accused her stepson, Agathocles, of plotting against his father, and provided the poison with which the old king killed his son, in order that her sons by Lysimachus would be the heirs to the throne. In a war with Seleucus, another of the successors, however, Lysimachus, who by this time also was king of Macedon, was killed. His soldiers deserted to the victor and Arsinoe barely escaped with her life. Her half-brother, Ptolemy Ceraunus, killed his benefactor, Seleucus, and now considered himself king of Thrace and Macedonia, but he had a wary eye out for Arsinoe's claims for her sons. He promised her that if she would marry him he would make her queen of Macedon and adopt her children. When he had her in his power he killed her two young sons (there is a possibility that an older son had gone to Illyria), and she fled to Egypt. There, by her strong will and ruthlessness, and by using the political cruelty of the times, she became not only the queen of Egypt, but also was deified and worshiped as a goddess. Ptolemy II, her full brother, was married to another Arsinoe (daughter of Lysimachus by a previous marriage) who had borne the king three children. Arsinoe, the sister, accused the queen of plotting against her husband, the king (same old useful plot). The king apparently believed it willingly and exiled his wife and married his elder sister. The custom of full-brother-and-sister marriage was an old established one with the ancient Egyptian royalty, but was frowned upon by the Macedonians and Greeks who, it is thought by some, allowed half-brothers and sisters (but not of the same mother) to marry. Perhaps Arsinoe II convinced her brother that, as he was king of Egypt, it was a good move, politically, to follow the example of the old Pharaohs.

Ptolemy II and Arsinoe II are known as the Brother-and-Sister Gods. She had no more children, but adopted those of Arsinoe I. She had another brother and a half-brother killed on the always-good charge of plotting against the throne and, with her way then clear, she took charge of things. Ptolemy II was not the strong man his father had been (his sister must have inherited that trait), and seemed to lean on his sister-wife

for the five years before her death in 270 B.C.

Berenice II was the daughter of Magas of Cyrenaica, and became queen of that country. She was married to her cousin, Ptolemy III, Euergetes I, and together they were known as the Benefactor Gods. She had the reputation of being virtuous, and nothing but good has been written about this Hellenistic queen after she married Ptolemy. They had four children, one of whom died in infancy. Their son, Ptolemy IV, was married to his sister, Arsinoe. Some bronze coins of Ptolemy III were struck with the head of Berenice on reverse; and others of gold, silver and bronze with her head on obverse, with the reverse sides having various symbols, but reading Queen Berenice (in Greek).

Arsinoe III was the sister and wife of Ptolemy IV, Philopator. They were known as the Father-loving Gods. This Ptolemy was one of the worst of the line. He was a wicked, cruel and weak king and a drunkard. He had his brother Magas scalded to death in his bath, his uncle killed, and his mother poisoned at the instigation of Sosibius, who was his prime minister, and who wanted to rule without obstructions. From all accounts Arsinoe III led a blameless and unhappy life, and, after the mysterious death of her husband, she was murdered by the palace clique to prevent her from becoming guardian and regent for her son. Some gold and bronze coins, showing her head, were struck.

Cleopatra I. The name Cleopatra is Greek, meaning "having a glorious father," and also had been the name of the sister of Alexander the Great. Cleopatra I was the daughter of Antiochus III of Syria and in 193 B.C. became the wife of Ptolemy V, Epiphanes and Eucharistos, the God Manifest and Gracious. Her ancestry was Macedonian and Persian, and she introduced a Persian strain into the hitherto Macedonian blood of the Ptolemies. She shared her husband's titles (Epiphanes, etc.). After his death she was regent for their son, Ptolemy VI, Philometor, for about eight years, the first of the Ptolemaic queens to have this authority. She governed well, and no slander has been attached to her name. She had coins in bronze and silver minted in

her name, some of the bronze showing her as Isis, with a Ptolemaic eagle on fulmen on reverse. Antiochus IV of Syria had coins struck during his occupation of Egypt with her portrait on them (she was his sister).

Cleopatra II, daughter of Cleopatra I, was married to her brother, Ptolemy VI, Philometor, and they were worshiped as the Mother-loving Gods. It would take too much space here to go into the history of Egypt of that time, but it would seem that Cleopatra II must have been a wise, influential and tactful woman, as well as a strong-minded one who was determined to rule. She made and kept peace between her two brothers to the extent that they ruled together for five years, until the younger brother made trouble for Philometor, and then, at the bidding of Rome, went to rule at Cyrenaica. Some credit must go to Philometor, however, as he was a kind and forgiving man. Philometor and Cleopatra had four children. A son, known as Ptolemy VII, Eupator, was for several years before his death joint-king with his father. Two daughters, both named Cleopatra, were, of course, made pawns in the political game. One, who became Cleopatra III, was betrothed to Philometor's brother, who was mentioned above.

The other daughter, **Cleopatra Thea**, was married in 150 B.C. to Alexander Balas, Pretender to the throne of Syria. She later married Demetrius II, and then Antiochus VII, both kings of Syria. When her son, Antiochus VIII, Grypus, became heir to the throne, she was his guardian, and true to the blood of her ancestors, she assumed full powers as queen. In 125 B.C. she had silver tetradrachms struck with her head on obverse, and on reverse double cornucopiae with the legend, in Greek, "of Queen Cleopatra, Goddess of Plenty." There also are bronze and silver coins with heads jugate of Cleopatra Thea and her son Antiochus VIII, Grypus.

Another son of Philometor and Cleopatra II, Ptolemy Neos Philopator IX, for whose reign Cleopatra II was regent, was killed by his uncle, who then became king. Cleopatra II was obliged by public opinion in Alexandria to marry the brother after Philometor's death. The brother is

known as Ptolemy VIII, Eurgetes II. He later married her daughter, Cleopatra III, who had been betrothed to him by her father, and Cleopatra II, Eurgetes II and Cleopatra III ruled together until Eurgetes was forced to flee from Alexandria. He took with him Cleopatra III, their children, and his son, Memphites, by Cleopatra II. Cleopatra II then was regarded as sole ruler in Alexandria and, so the story goes, Eurgetes, in revenge, had their son killed, and his dismembered body sent to the queen on her birthday. Eurgetes and Cleopatra III returned to Alexandria, however. This time Cleopatra II fled, but there was a reconciliation, and the three of them again reigned jointly. Cleopatra II was queen for about 57 years. There were issued by Ptolemy VIII, Eurgetes II, bronze coins with the heads of each of his two wives. This Ptolemy was nicknamed by the Alexandrians *Physcon*, meaning Pot-belly. He died in 116 B.C.

Cleopatra III was, after the deaths of her mother and husband (who also was her uncle) a most domineering, meddlesome and despotic woman, who pushed her children around in her efforts to get her own way. Her husband's will stated that she was to rule Egypt with whichever of their two sons she chose. The people insisted, however, upon the older, who became Ptolemy X, Soter II, nicknamed *Lathyrus* (Chickpea). He was not her choice, and she made life miserable for him. She forced him to divorce his sister-wife, **Cleopatra IV**, with whom he was happy, and marry another sister, **Cleopatra V, Selene**. Cleopatra III ruled with Soter II until she was able to push him out temporarily, and then ruled with his brother, Ptolemy XI, Alexander. I have seen listed a coin minted during the reign of Soter II with the inscription, "Cleopatra Queen" and on reverse two eagles on fulmen and the legend, "Ptolemy King."

After Cleopatra III managed to send Soter II into exile, she took away from him his second sister-wife, Cleopatra Selene, whom she had forced him to marry, and had Cleopatra Selene married to Antiochus VIII, Grypus, of Syria. Grypus previously had been married to Cleopatra Selene's sister, **Tryphaena**. He was the son of Cleopatra Thea, sister of

Cleopatra III. Cleopatra Selene later became the wife of two other Syrian kings, Antiochus IX, Cyzicenus, who was half brother to Grypus, and Antiochus Eusebes, who was the son of Cyzicenus. This marry-go-round is an example of the kind of life that many of these Ptolemaic queens lived, and not always from choice.

Berenice III was the daughter of Soter II. She had been married to her uncle, Ptolemy Alexander, who was forced into exile in 89 B.C. and was killed a year later. Berenice returned to Egypt to rule with her father, who had returned to the throne. When her father died she was his heir, but in order to follow tradition she agreed to marry a young relative who was pushed forward by Sulla, dictator of Rome. The new king is known as Ptolemy XII, Alexander II, and he murdered his wife within three weeks. She had been well liked by her people, and a furious mob dragged him out and killed him.

Cleopatra VI Tryphaena was the wife of the next king, Ptolemy XIII Auletes, and she probably was the mother of the most famous of the Cleopatras, Cleopatra VII. When Auletes felt that he was insecure on the throne and went to Rome to obtain help and friendship by bribery, the Egyptians put his oldest daughter, **Berenice IV** on the throne. (Perhaps with Cleopatra Tryphaena, who died shortly thereafter.) When Auletes was restored to his throne (55 B.C.), he had Berenice murdered. He died four years later, and bequeathed the kingdom to his elder daughter Cleopatra VII and elder son, Ptolemy XIV. (Writers "number" these kings differently.)

Cleopatra VII. Her story is well known. With her intelligence she must have seen from her childhood that her country was at the mercy of Rome, and could not exist without the help and consent of Rome. With her intriguing, unscrupulous, often cruel and often courageous ways, she was a true descendant of the strongest of the Macedonian queens. Al-

though she is famed for her beauty, her portraits on her coins show her to be not so goodlooking as many of her ancestors. Her personality must have accounted for much of her historic charm.

Cleopatra Selene of Mauretania was the daughter of Cleopatra VII and Mark Antony. Octavius married her to Juba II of Mauretania. Cleopatra Selene and Juba both, as children, had marched in a Roman triumphal procession. The coins with her head on them have her inscription in Greek, while Juba used Latin for his. Other coins of her alone, in Greek, and her types, show her pride in her Egyptian ancestry. She is the last of the Ptolemaic women known about with certainty. Apparently her upbringing by Antony's wife, Octavia, who was known as the best kind of woman, softened the fierce Macedonian strain, because there is no record of cruelty on her part.

Cleopatra Selene and Juba named their only son Ptolemy. Ptolemy reigned together with Juba for a short time, and then alone until 40 A.D., when he was ordered killed by Caligula. Rome then took back the African kingdom it had given to Juba II in 25 B.C.

Cleopatra Selene and her son Ptolemy are not, of course, royalty of Egypt, but they should be mentioned here because they bring to a close the authenticated history of the line of kings and queens that was started shortly after the death of Alexander in 323 B.C. by Ptolemy, son of Lagus. Cleopatra VII and Antony had two other children, Ptolemy and Alexander Helios, twin of Cleopatra Selene. They went with their sister to Mauretania, and then seem to fade from the picture.

Even though I have omitted many interesting details and episodes from this short story about the Berenices, Arsinoes and Cleopatras, it reads quite a bit like a gossip column. But, then, so much of world history is like that.

THE TRIBUTE PENNY OF THE BIBLE

By DON SMYSER, *San Bernardino*

No doubt it is more than presumptuous to attempt writing anything which might be authoritative on a subject so familiar as the Tribute Penny. Nevertheless, it is the writer's hope that these few words may leave the reader with a little more vivid picture of the controversy and moral lesson associated with the original Tribute Penny.

Let us stop to consider the scene in which the Tribute Penny is mentioned. It was spring in Judea in the year we have come to know as 30 A.D. The sun shone brightly and the "land of hills and valleys" was blanketed with green. In the valleys down by the Jordan the lilies were in their splendor. The barley heads were beginning to ripen on the hillside, and around Jericho a few figs were starting to change color. And on every road from Dan to Beersheeba there were pilgrims. They were singing the psalms of Zion as they journeyed to Jerusalem, for this was the Passover season.

Jerusalem in feast day temper was fearsome to behold. Between the zeal of the Galilean nationalist and the ardor of the Judean religionist, Rome had to set a close watch with her legions from Caesarea. The latest trouble concerned Jesus of Nazareth. He claimed to be the Messiah but appeared far more interested in healing the sick and preaching about His Father, than in wresting Judea from the Roman conqueror. Or so it seemed to the priests in Ophel, that suburb of Jerusalem where the priests lived, as they discussed the happenings of the day just passed that Sunday evening. It seems that this Jesus had come up to the feast and had ridden into the city from Bethany on a donkey. But a foolish mob had insisted on a scene. They had made quite a commotion as He entered the city, throwing their garments before Him and waving branches and shouting Hosannas. Anything might happen if the people were not watched and guided.

This was still idle gossip to those who were awakened early Monday morning by a blast from the ram's horn and rose to greet the sun's rising and to serve in the temple. As the sun climbed the eastern sky above the Mount of Olives, the temple worship proceeded on schedule: the incense was burned in the

sanctuary, prayers were offered in the courtyard, psalms were chanted by the singers on the sanctuary steps, the morning lamb was offered on the brazen altar. In midmorning a commotion disturbed the calmness of the temple. The center of the disturbance was in the stalls in the outer court. First voices were raised in protest then shouts and screams arose, mingled with the howling and bleating of frightened cattle. A turmoil of men and beasts from the commercial concessions of old Annas crowded out of the temple gate in mingled pandemonium and fright. Strange! but they seemed to be driven by one lone man swinging a scourge. Quickly the news spread through the temple and then through Jerusalem. It was Jesus of Nazareth. As the Sun went down Monday night the defense was being organized. Quickly and surely the priests, the Pharisees, the Sadducees, the Herodians, the lawyers, scribes, and elders met to defend the established system. Men who but today had argued fine points of doctrine were now united in purpose; there was too much danger of insurrection in the affairs of the last two days. Rome could march her legions from Caesarea, Antioch, and Alexandria and make short work of Jewry. Among the proposals was a trap which surely should deliver him to the Roman Procurator, Pontius Pilate. "Is it lawful to give tribute to Caesar?" If he said "yes," he would be disgraced before the people and no longer a threat; if he said "no," the Romans might have him as an insurrectionist before the revolt became general.

Tuesday, a morning of expectancy, dawned. The trap was set; would he come? By midmorning the tension had grown almost to a snapping point. Finally he came with his little handful of disciples. Boldly he entered and took a place in the north court and began to teach. Had he no shame? The temple guard with the chief priests and scribes approached him. He was no recognized teacher, how dared he teach? A controversy began which was destined to be recorded and referred to as the lesson of the tribute money. "And they send unto him certain of the Pharisees and of the Herodians, to catch him in his words. And when they were come, they say unto him, Master, we know that thou art true, and carest for no man: for thou regardest not the person

of men, but teachest the way of God in truth: Is it lawful to give tribute to Caesar, or not? Shall we give or shall we not give? But he knowing their hypocrisy, said unto them, 'Why tempt ye me? bring me a penny, that I may see it.' And they brought it. And he saith unto them, 'Whose is this image and superscription?' and they said unto him, 'Caesar's.' And Jesus answering said unto them, 'Render to Caesar the things that are Caesar's and to God the things that are God's,' and they marveled at him."

We shall notice that the question is one of money to pay the Roman tribute. There were three types of taxes paid by the Jews. (They had multiple taxes the same as we have today.) In Matt. 17:24 Peter was questioned as to whether Jesus paid the didrachm, as it is called in the Greek text. This was for the upkeep of the temple and was a purely Jewish tax which was first mentioned in Ex. 30:13-16 as being commanded by God to Moses. It is well known that St. Matthew was a tax-collector before his conversion at Capernium on the shore of the Sea of Galilee. In Mk. 2:14 we read that he was sitting that day in the "toll house," as Thayer translates the Greek word "telonion". This toll house was the place where the fishing boats of Galilee paid their quotas of fish to Rome and the travelers plying between Babylon and Damascus to Alexandria in Egypt paid their toll to Rome. Neither of these would be what the Pharisees called "poll tax" as Thayer again translates the Greek word "keenson." Josephus, the Jewish historian in War ii.16,44, says that the Roman Capital tax was one drachm per year, per man. One thus gets a fair idea of the type of tribute or tax which was repulsive to the Nationalistic Jews of Christ's day.

Having determined the type of tribute, let us investigate the denomination of the coin called "penny" in the authorized version of the Bible. The American Standard version, the Chaldoner-Rheims and other later translations render this word penny literally as denarius. The Roman denarius would agree with Josephus' drachm as they are valued alike, one being Roman, the other Greek. It is a silver coin of about 60 grains weight, and was first coined by the Romans in 187 B.C. It acquired its name from its value "10 asses," an "aes" being the original standard copper coin of Rome. Many of the dinars during the Republic bore a large X on the

obverse indicating the value of 10. By the time of Augustus and Tiberius they had changed their value so as to be tariffed at 16 asses to a denarius.

The next question which arises is, which denarius would it be? Augustus died in the year 14 A.D. and as Tacitus, Ann 1,3 and Suetonius Aug. 97, Tib. 21 report, Tiberius was adopted two years



THE TRIBUTE PENNY

before Augustus' death and reigned these two years concurrently with him. As the event we are studying occurred in the year 30 A.D., Tiberius had reigned for 18 years, 16 of them alone. Very likely then, although we cannot be dogmatic, it was a coin issued by Tiberius. Sixteen years would be long enough for a new coin to become current, especially in a border province such as Judea where the emperor stationed and paid his legions with Imperial coinage. Even if this were not sufficient to make a coin current in 16 years, it must be remembered that the Imperial coinage was the Emperor's bulletin board, announcing liberalities, victories and even proposed architectural features. It must have been the policy of the Empire to hasten the circulation of new issues, since they carried important propaganda value.

Following is a description of a denarius of Tiberius Caesar which has been commonly accepted as the Tribute Penny: *Obverse*: Laureate head of Tiberius to right; border of dots. Upward from bottom, right to left, legend. TI CAESAR DIVI AVGVSTI. *Reverse*: Livia seated on throne to right; diademed and robed holding in right hand scepter, in left hand palm branch; border of dots. PONTIF (right) MAXIM (left). AR 8/12; Wt. 60 grs.

Eidersheim, in "Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah," Bk. V Ch. III, has an interesting footnote: "By a strange concurrence the coin which on Christ's demand was handed to Him, bore 'the image' of the Emperor. It must, therefore have been either a foreign one (Roman), Neither Herod nor

Herod Antipas had any "image" on his coins, but only the usual "devices" of the Maccabaeon period. And the coins which the Roman Emperors had struck specially for Palestine, bore till the time of Vespasian, in accommodation to Jewish prejudice, no image of any kind.

Other minor possibilities which have been considered have been the copper coins of the Tetrarch Philip which bore the image of Tiberius on occasion, or a drachm of Caesarea in Cappadocia, neither of which could be called "denarius", strictly speaking.

Finally we notice that the Master called attention to two things about this coin: the Emperor's "image" and his "superscription", from which He taught a moral lesson of eternal value, silencing His critics. In the words, "Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's and unto God the things that are God's", Jesus' hearers that day would be re-

minded that "God created man in His image", Gen. 1:27. Man bearing God's image is responsible to render himself to his maker. The coin bearing the superscription of Caesar would pass current in Caesar's realm. To the nationalistic Jew this was very real, for it reminded him of the conqueror, who could coin money and collect taxes. As Jesus said, "Render—unto God the things that are God's" the Jews who heard Him would remember that all creation was within God's realm and God could and would collect that which was due Him from mankind.

As we each handle a Tribute Penny, whether our own or another's, we may well wonder: was this the coin my Savior held so long ago? And as we hold that little silver coin hardly bigger than a dime we seem to hear echoing down two millenniums, "Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's and unto God the things that are God's".

MEDIEVAL



MEDIEVAL

The Medieval period is from the middle ages, a period usually regarded by historians as commencing with the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the fifth century A.D. and ending at the close of the fifteenth century.

Coins, medals, medallions, and the like, from this period are of the utmost importance, for they are factual proof of a vital period in the history of the world. The importance of the coinage from this period lies in the fact that the monetary system as we know it today, was developed during the ten centuries of the medieval period.

At the start of the medieval era, there was no monetary science. It was not until the works of Aristotle became available, at first the Ethics, later the Politics, that the scholars of this period began to develop any clear ideas regarding money.

The conquest of Constantinople by the Crusaders in 1204, brought close relations with the Byzantine Empire. The gold florin struck at Florence in 1252 started a new era for the monetary systems of Europe.

Medieval history has left us a most important record through its coinage and medallic art. Contributing enormously were the important dynasties and officiates of this time; the Papalite, the early royalty of England, the famous banking houses, the early Germanic royalty, the Jewish money-lenders and bankers, the royal houses of the Low countries, the Hansas, the guilds, and many others.

In addition to valuable European coinage, a treasure of historical numismatic lore was left by the Mohammedan powers in the Iberian peninsula and North Africa.

EMPEROR AKBAR

The Man Behind the Coin

By LEO N. KUKURANOV, San Francisco

THE MAN

For those who choose, as faithful companions of their leisure, old coins it is but natural to make, in addition to a critical examination of the coins, an appraisal of the personalities who brought these coins into being. An ancient coin may happen to be of striking beauty, revealing the artistic genius of the people who created it centuries ago, but the thought that a brutal and cowardly tyrant was the man, in whose reign the piece was struck, may somewhat dampen a collector's enjoyment of handling such a coin, particularly if he takes a parallel interest in historical reading. And the reverse is bound to take place when the image of a wise and courageous figure looms forth from behind the coin. The magic of the past is hard to resist one way or the other.

To numismatically minded people, interested in coin material of Muhammadan dynasties of India, the series issued during the long reign of Emperor Jalalu-d-din Muhammad Akbar (A.D. 1556-1605) presents a special interest not only due to their numismatic peculiarities. The very traits of this king's complex and powerful personality enhance the enjoyment of studying the rich coin heritage left by him.

Historians often associate with Akbar the majestic epithet "the Great". Before attempting to analyze the justification of such a distinction, we must remind ourselves of several important points. When we try to make an objective appraisal of a head of a vast state, whose reign is separated from our days by a span of about 400 years, we should be careful to avoid applying to him the measuring scale of statesmanship based on conceptions born in times closer to ours. This precaution is essential, if we want to be fair, when speaking of Akbar. The founders of Muhammadan dynasties of Hindustan, almost without exception, were adventurers from the neighboring Central-Asian lands. The only purpose of their invasions of India and establishing their sway over

the country was to satisfy their lust for power, gold, jewels and slaves. The general welfare of their subjects was the last thing of which they thought. Even the brilliant warrior and eminent poet Babur, founder of the Mughal dynasty of India, and grandfather of Akbar, had nothing but contempt for his newly conquered subjects of northern India, as witnessed by some of the comments in his famous memoirs.

The 16th century of our era had a galaxy of outstanding rulers both in Europe and Asia: Elizabeth I of England, Henry IV of France, Sultan Suleiman of Turkey, Shah Abbas I of Persia, and Akbar of Hindustan were all contemporaries for at least a part of their reign. But while the first four came to the throne as grown up persons with very substantial territories to rule over, Akbar was proclaimed king at the age of 13, with barely a fraction of the kingdom recovered by his father Emperor Humayun after the latter's prolonged political eclipse and exile as a result of military defeats by a capable Afghan adventurer Sher Shah, founder of a short-lived dynasty of India. It was during his father's exile that Akbar was born in 1542. His childhood, mostly spent in simple, even primitive surroundings, away from the luxuries of palace life, was a healthy foundation for the physical development of the boy. He grew into a spirited adolescent wholly absorbed in outdoor life—riding, hunting and military training. At the same time he refused to take to book studies and some sources indicate that to the end of his days Akbar remained half illiterate, in spite of his exceptionally keen mind and phenomenal memory.

When in 1556 an accident caused the premature death of Akbar's father, Emperor Humayun, the trusted general Bairam-Khan arranged Akbar's enthronement and carried on the successful recovery of the kingdom, with the boy-king taking active part in the campaigns, which developed into a crushing defeat of the enemy and the

Figure 1



Figure 4

Figure 3

Figure 1—Jaunpur mint. An old "Kalima" type, issued during the early part of Akbar's reign.

Figure 2—Lahore mint. 37th year of the reign (new type of the "Ilahi Era", issued in August 1592).

Figure 3—Ahmadabad mint. 47th year of the reign (new type of the "Ilahi Era", issued in September 1602).

Figure 4—No mint name. 35th year of the reign (new type of the "Ilahi Era", issued between Dec. 12, 1590 and Jan. 11, 1591).

(All four coins enlarged twice regular size)

eventual recapture of the capital cities of Delhi and Agra. Thus Akbar received his early military training on actual battle fields. He did not, however, take the reigns of government into his own hands until he was 20 years old when, faced with an open murderous challenge of his authority, he freed himself from nefarious interference and influence of some court circles. This was a decisive turning point in Akbar's life. Deeply disappointed in surrounding relatives and false friends, he understood that he could rely only on Divine help and himself. From then on he became the real master of his realm, both as military commander and statesman.

The young Emperor was only in his 22nd year when he ordered the abolition of levy dues from Hindu pilgrims. "Akbar expressed the opinion that it was contrary to the will of God to tax people assembled to worship the Creator, even though their form of worship might be considered erroneous." (1) This measure meant a considerable financial loss to Akbar's treasury, and was followed the next year by abolition of "jizya", a poll tax on non-Muslims; the Muslims being a comparatively small minority, this tax applied to the bulk of Akbar's subjects, the Hindus, and its abrogation undoubtedly caused a huge further reduction of revenue. Both measures must have been irksome to Akbar's Muslim ministers, and one cannot help admiring the determined strength of will so judiciously displayed by the young king against definite opposition on the side of his co-religionists. The abolished taxation, besides representing a heavy financial burden, had previously branded the vast majority of the Hindu population as second rate subjects, while placing those of an alien race and religion in a privileged position. By discontinuing it Akbar lifted the stigma of inferiority from his Hindu subjects.

The first half of Akbar's long reign was filled with an almost continuous warfare with the Emperor leading his troops in person, often in the forefront of battles. His indomitable personal courage knew no bounds, and on many occasions exposed him to mortal danger in war and sport. The long list of his victorious campaigns was primarily the result of his driving personality, his thorough planning and

detailed supervision of all preparatory measures and his unfailing leadership in the face of great odds. The fruit of these campaigns was the gradual subjugation of the neighboring independent kingdoms and principalities, sometimes without the slightest provocation on their side. With the territorial expansion came a steady increase in power and wealth. Very ambitious by nature, Akbar studiously mapped out the most effective steps for enhancing his prestige, occasionally by harsh and brutal means, signs of his times, but more often by endeavoring to win over, whenever possible, his former foes by gesture of clemency and granting them face-saving chances to serve him one way or the other. The latter method won him many firm supporters among his former opponents. To solidify his authority he drastically reorganized the method of compensation of high dignitaries of the state, replacing land grants for services with payment of salaries, thus destroying the independence and local influence of large estate owners, and creating instead a more docile bureaucracy.

His flair for gifted men, both in affairs of state and the domain of applied arts, contributed greatly to placing outstanding talent in charge of essential branches of government; among the chosen ones there were quite a few Hindus. A most striking example of this we see in the person of Raja Todar Mall who, coming from a poor village of central India, rose to the highest position in the state, that of "vakil", or prime minister.

In spite of his immense accumulated wealth, Akbar was not a careless spend-thrift; but he was fond of splendor and pomp. His natural good taste guided him in all grand constructions of palaces and forts, some of which have survived in a perfect condition up to our days. (Fathpur-Sikri, Akbar's capital city for 15 years near Agra, is a striking example.) As a patron of artistic activities Akbar attracted to his court creative talent of his age in all branches of art, in architecture and painting in particular. The Mughal school of painting as well as the type of architecture, in which both characteristic Indian and Muhammadan features were successfully blended, have their origin in the time of his reign.

As a central figure on a vast stage of oriental politics, Akbar had to be a consummate actor with some of the unattractive peculiarities common to most of the men of politics of all times, at least to some extent, hypocrisy and duplicity included. Quick tempered by nature, Akbar, we are told, "was so completely master of his emotions that he could hardly ever be seen otherwise than as perfectly pleasant and serene." (2) Akbar's success as a statesman and military commander lies in the extraordinary qualities of his mind, spirit and body fused together to produce a born leader of men. Almost all written comments of persons, who came into close contact with Akbar, concur in the high appraisal of his personality. His perfectly dignified appearance and charm of manners were irresistible. The Jesuit Father Jerome Xavier, who was at Akbar's court during the last ten years of his reign, described Akbar's manners by saying: "In truth he was great with the great, and lowly with the lowly." (3)

Side by side with the empire builder engrossed in heavy tasks of government, a man of action on the path of conquest, amassment of wealth and centralized power, was ever present a mystic and a thinker in search of answers to the eternal questions about God and man. The thirst after a true religion was so deeply seated in Akbar's mind that it often absorbed him entirely. He looked for the answers in listening for hours to debates on religious matters between learned men of various creeds: Muslims, Christians, Zoroastrians, Buddhists, Jains and others. Even a special building was erected in his capital city Fathpur-Sikri called the "House of Worship" (now no longer existing), where the discourses on religious and philosophical subjects were mainly conducted. The Emperor, a Muhammadan by birth and family tradition, gradually lost faith in the tenets of Islam, and his inquisitive mind tried to explore the whole range of religious thoughts and teachings. Not finding a wholly satisfactory answer in any of them, he decided to establish a new eclectic religion, which would borrow all that he considered worthy and good in other creeds. His close advisors and flatterers counseled that he personally should act as the high priest of the new religion, to

which he gave the name of Divine Monotheism (Din Ilahi). This venture was a total failure. Only the palace coterie, some high dignitaries and opportunistically minded people made up the following. The bulk of the population remained deaf to this artificial religion, which was alien in its teaching to the age old traditions of the predominant religions.

Akbar's gradual abandonment of Islam caused a violent wave of hatred among some Muslim circles; this found its serious repercussions in the political life of the empire. It demanded all the energy and resourcefulness of Akbar and the whole might of his military organization to retain control of the state and defeat the attempt to unseat him. Some Muslim historians of Akbar's time even accuse Akbar of persecuting his former coreligionists, and this may to some extent be true. His personal inclination seems to have been towards a nature worship as reflected in Zoroastrian teachings.

"Man's acquisitive trait is not what makes him great", said Rear-Admiral H. R. Rickover in his thought-provoking book "Education and Freedom" (p. 59). This fully applies to Akbar. His acquisitive drive for wealth and power was stupendous, and he succeeded to concentrate both in his hands far above what any of his contemporary monarchs possessed. But this alone would not single him out as one of the greatest sovereigns. What did make him great and endeared him to the posterity in India are these two basic features of his reign which stand out in a striking contrast to the general policy of all the Muhammadan autocrats of India: (a) his recognition of the fact that the loyalty of subjects, in a vast majority alien to him by race and religion, cannot be merely imposed by force, but rather by the principle of equal treatment; and (b) his negation to Islam of its established position of a privileged religion and admittance of religious tolerance. Simple as these two principles may appear to us now, they were anathema in the eyes of Moslem kings of Akbar's time, and it required his outstanding statesmanship to implement them into the working system of his government.

This is just a very sketchy outline of the image of the empire builder of

late medieval India, some fundamental ideas of whose institutions received recognition and partial revival under the British rule. The late Vincent A. Smith, himself a former official of Indian civil service and an eminent author of historical works on India, made the following statement about Akbar: "His institutions are not merely of historical and antiquarian interest, but are in some degree the foundation of the system of administration now in operation." (4).

THE COINAGE

Emperor Akbar's coinage derives its particular interest for historians and students of numismatics for several reasons. (1) It faithfully reflected the growth of the Mughal empire; (2) it puts into relief the main centers of administrative and commercial activity during the various periods of Akbar's long reign; (3) therein is tangibly mirrored this monarch's break with Islam and his new religious credo; (4) by the purity of the metal contents and the stability of standards of weight it points to the efficient management and supervision of this branch of government; and (5) as a field of the engraver's and calligrapher's art, it has brought down to our days a large number of fine illustrations of these minor arts of the early Mughal period.

H. C. Rawlinson, author of "India, a Short Cultural History", makes the following statement about Akbar's coinage: "Amongst the many improvements introduced by Akbar was an excellent system of coinage, which for purity of metal, fullness of weight and artistic workmanship excelled anything in the West" (p. 308). Whether this is an exaggeration or not must be left to judge to those experts who are equally at home in the fields of western and oriental numismatics of the second half of the 16th century. Whatever their conclusion may be, all acknowledged authorities on Mughal series concur in a very high opinion about Akbar's coinage.

We all know that coins in the middle ages were the main tools of daily reminder to the population about the person of their king. In the western countries usually his image on the coins enhanced the effect. As the Koran prohibited the use on coins of any images of the living world, an orthodox Muhammadan ruler had at

his disposal quotations from the Koran, names of the caliphs, successors of the Prophet, besides his own name, date and place of issue. It was left to the calligraphic virtuosity of the engraver to adorn the coins by means of arabesque and floral ornamentation side by side with finely executed inscriptions.

During the first 30 years of his reign Akbar's coinage in many respects followed the standards introduced by the Delhi Sultans of the Suri Dynasty (1538-54). The monetary units already current, namely: mohur for gold, rupee, silver, and dam for copper, were retained, but Akbar paid close personal attention to the improvement of the system of mint supervision. The re-organization took place towards the end of 1577, when the Emperor appointed as Master of the Mint at the capital an eminent painter and calligrapher, placing concurrently the highest officials in charge of the five principal provincial mints. Always eager to introduce something new, Akbar at the same time ordered the striking of square coins in addition to the round ones. This shape though was already in use in the kingdom of Malwa, conquered by Akbar early in his reign.

The promulgation of the new religion had a drastic influence on Akbar's coinage. The Koranic profession of Muhammadan faith, the so-called "Kalima", the names of the first four orthodox caliphs, and the Hijra dating gradually disappeared. Instead the coins began to bear the leading motto of the new creed: "Al-lahu Akbar Jalla Jalala", meaning: "God is most great, eminent in His glory". The new system of dating the coins had as its starting point the first year of Akbar's reign: A.H. 963 or A.D. 1556, and in accordance with the name of the new religion—"Tauhid Ilahi" (Divine Monotheism)—the new era was also called "Ilahi" or Divine Era. The lunar calendar of the Islamic faith was replaced with the solar calendar, and the names of the old Persian months included in the coin legend. In later years some very rare coins of Akbar even had designs taken from animal beings (birds), and in one known case human-like figures from Hindu mythology were pictured on a few extremely rare gold and silver coins.

With the growth of Akbar's ter-

ritorial acquisitions his mints multiplied; and judging by the specimens so far recorded, their number was in excess of 80. Not all of these mints, of course, functioned at the same time, and only a limited number were active throughout Akbar's reign, with Agra, Ahmadabad and Lahor being among the most productive ones. Some mints are known only by one issue, commemorating some military success, and which should rather be classified as medallions. The latest work on the subject of Mughal mints—"Mint Towns of the Mughal Emperors of India", by C. R. Singhal, a well known authority on a wide range of coins, issued by various Muhammadan dynasties of India (published in 1953 by Numismatic Society of India, Bombay) gives the following figures of Akbar's mints, of which specimens have been found and described: issuing gold coins, 21; silver coins, 45; copper, 64; by far not all of them minted coins in all three metals.

It is of interest to mention additionally the following two peculiarities of Mughal mintage stressed by Prof. S. H. Hodivala (5): (a) Both gold and silver issues had "a much smaller proportion of alloy than either the English sovereign or the British Indian rupee". As a result "they were . . . much sooner worn and more liable to clipping or sweating."

(Hence the comparative difficulty of securing well preserved Mughal coins.) (b) Anyone could get his gold, silver and copper converted at the mint into coins on "paying to the State a small royalty or seigniorage. (This "free coinage" system accounts for the large quantities of Akbar's coins that have come down to our days from several mints located at commercial and administrative centers of his empire. However, comparatively few among them have not grievously suffered from either wear or deliberate damage for reasons mentioned above.)

The finest collection of Akbar's issues is supposed to be in the British Museum, London. However, a visit to the Museum of the American Numismatic Society, New York City, would be a rewarding experience for all taking interest in Mughal series.

* * * *

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How Doges Were Elected

The chief magistrate in the former republics of Venice and Genoa was called doge.

At one time the Venetians elected the doge by the following system:

Thirty members of the Grand Council, chosen by lot, drew from wax balls. The nine who won that drawing then elected 40 ordinary citizens.

One of the outgoing and therefore

presumably incorruptible councilors then went to mass, and upon leaving the church he grabbed the first boy he chanced upon, took him to the palace, and bade him choose, by numbered pellet, 12 of the 40 citizens.

The 12 then elected 25, who in turn selected 9, who picked 45, who chose 11, who elected 41—who then decided upon the doge.

—William O. Hutt, San Francisco



DUCAT OF VENICE — Andrea Dandolo, 1344-1354. Obverse, St. Mark standing, left; at right, doge kneeling, holding staff with two hands. Word DVX alongside banner, near top, right. Left legend, S. M. VENETI; right legend, doge's name. Reverse, Figure of Christ in pointed oval or mandorla, four stars regularly placed on left, five on right. Legend, SIT.T.XPE.DAT.Q.TV.REGIS.ISTE.DVCAT (Let this duchy which Thou rulest be dedicated to Thee, O Christ). Used internationally in trade, the ducat was the coin of Shakespeare's "Merchant of Venice." Actual size, 20 mm.

Names in World History

FERDINAND AND ISABELLA

By Dr. C. GLENN CURTIS, Brea

The man and woman pictured on the coin illustrated on this page are one of the most famous teams in history — Ferdinand and Isabella.

But if it hadn't been for an Italian boy known as Christopher Columbus, perhaps their names would be less brilliant.

The record books tell us that Ferdinand was King of Aragon and

Leon, while Isabella was Queen of Castile at the time of their marriage.

The two of them did a pretty good job of promotion, as we see from the following: Established royal authority* in all parts of Spain; expelled Moors from Granada; contended with France for the supremacy of Italy; forwarded voyages of Christopher Columbus.

This coin you see here, called a double ducat (DUCK-et), is one of the coins cast in 1492 that actually financed Columbus' voyages to the New World.

To show what small expeditions these voyages of Columbus were — in actual cash — it took but a few thousand coins like the one portrayed here, to finance his quests.

And while Isabella is famous for her promise to finance Columbus by pawning her jewels, the loot Spain gathered when the Moors were kicked out of Granada went a long way to ease the financial strain of such trips as Columbus took.



STORY OF THE COINS OF THE GRAND MASTERS

Order of Rhodes and Malta

By I EONEL C. PANOSH, *San Diego*

This article is written, not as any addition to the literature on the subject, but with the idea that it may get the attention of some collectors who have given it little or no thought; who have passed it by as lacking in interest or as being too difficult to attempt; or who may feel that U.S. coins are the only ones worth-while.

I have no quarrel with the collector who confines his interest to the coins of his own country, and who endeavors to assemble as representative a collection of all the types his means will permit. Indeed, I feel that every collector should have at least a good basic collection of that kind, together with an adequate knowledge of the historical facts and economic changes which accompanied each issue, and which prompted any change in size, denomination, metallic content, or design.

Too many collectors, I believe, assemble complete sets, perhaps in uncirculated or proof condition, of some certain coin, without taking the time to find out a single fact in connection with the coins, other than the dates of issue and the number of types necessary to complete the set. They are collectors but they are not numismatists. They have added to their store of wealth, but they have added not a single thing to their fund of knowledge concerning it. I am reminded of my favorite definition of the word numismatics: "The science and study of coins, money or medals, and of the histories of all nations and their rulers through the medium of their coinage."

The purpose of this article is to present a description of a somewhat unusual series of coins, together with a little of the story behind the coins, and thus bring out if possible something of the pleasure and benefit which may be derived from collecting them. It is true that sometimes the coins are difficult to obtain, and very likely the set never will be completed, but that will be more than compensated for by the satisfaction to be had each time one is acquired and the fund of knowledge and information received from its study. Because I recently have been devoting more study to the coinage of the Grand Masters of the Order of Malta, as they are most commonly referred to, than to any other series in which I am interested, I have

chosen that coinage as the subject for this paper.

No consideration of the coinage of the Grand Masters of Malta, or of the Knights Hospitaller, St. John of Jerusalem, which is their real name, would be complete without at least a short summary of the origin and history of the order. Founded, some say, in 1048, and certainly no later than 1092 at the time of the first crusade, it was the oldest of the knightly brotherhoods which grew out of that 200-year struggle between the Christians and the Saracens for possession of the holy city of Jerusalem. With the exception of the Teutonic Knights it outlived all the others, maintaining a combined charitable, religious, military and political existence until 1800 when Napoleon took the island of Malta without resistance, thus bringing to a close the history of one of the most remarkable organizations the world ever has seen.

Originally founded as an organization of monks and knights to care for the sick and wounded at Jerusalem, the order set up hospitals and performed such a meritorious service that its work was rewarded by grants of money and property by kings, and its existence as an organization was recognized by the pope. Its fortunes rose and fell with those of the Christians and the first 200 years of its history is a succession of moves between Jerusalem, Acre and Limisso as the Christian forces alternately gained, lost, regained and lost again possession of the holy city.

In 1291 the struggle definitely was ended, and the Knights St. John of Jerusalem moved to the island of Cyprus, assuming the name Knights of Cyprus, and in 1309 they took the island of Rhodes, becoming known then as the Knights of Rhodes. Until 1522 they held that island against all efforts of the Turks to remove them.

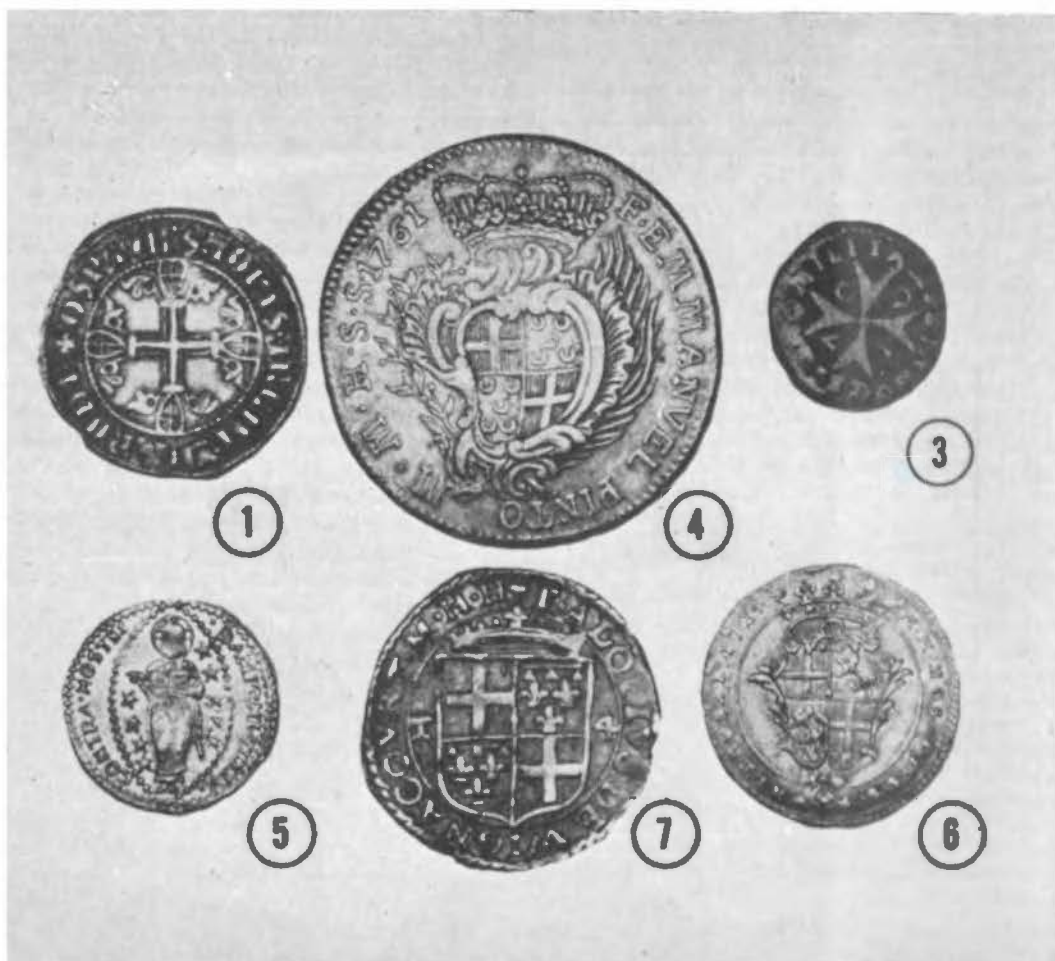
In 1522 a tremendous assault by the Saracens under Solyman finally prevailed, largely due to treachery on the part of the chancellor of the order. In recognition of the heroic defense made by them, the knights were permitted to take ship to the island of Candia where they remained until 1529 when they were given the island of Malta by Emperor Charles V. There taking the name Knights of Malta, they again became the bulwark of Christian Europe against the

attempts of the Turks to expand to the westward.

During the years 1113-1798 there were in all 70 grand masters. It is not my intention to go into detail concerning the lives, coinage and achievements of all of them. Suffice to say that many of them served with great glory, such as L'Isle-Adam (1521-1534) whose regime was so filled with tales of bravery, generosity and wisdom that his tombstone, yet to be seen, bears the simple yet glorious inscription, "Here virtue reposes, victorious over fortune"; while on the other hand Raymond d'Espuig (1736-1741) did so little of importance that his biographer could only record that "He lived—he died".

The right to issue a coinage always has been an attribute of sovereignty and as such always has been jealously guarded. Thus no coins were struck by the order while at Jerusalem, Acre, or Cyprus, but when it took over the island of Rhodes, it became in effect a sovereign power, ruling over a strategic island in the eastern Mediterranean. As commerce began with Asia and Europe the necessity of coinage became at once apparent, so in 1309, with Grand Master Foulques de Villeret, 25th grand master, there began the issuance of a series of coins which continued until 1798 when Ferdinand de Hompesch, 70th grand master, surrendered the island of Malta to Napoleon.





All coins actual size. First illustration shows obverses and second illustration pictures reverses of same coins.

1. Gigliato, silver, Melion de Villeneuve, 26th grand master, 1319-46
2. 1 Tari, silver, Jean D'Omedez, 46th grand master, 1536-53
3. 5 Granni, copper, Raymond Perellos, 63rd grand master, 1697-1720
4. 30 Tari, silver, Emanuel Pinto de Fonseca, 67th grand master, 1741-73
5. 1 Zecchino, gold, Martin Garzes, 52nd grand master, 1595-1601
6. 2 Zecchini, gold, Antoine Manoel de Vilhena, 65th grand master, 1722-36
7. 4 Trai, silver, Alofio de Wignacourt, 53rd grand master, 1601-22
8. 1 Scudo, silver, Raymond d'Espuig de Montenegro, 66th grand master, 1736-41

It is interesting to note that none other of the great orders of knighthood ever enjoyed the privilege of coining money and that when the Emperor Charles gave the island of Malta to the knights in exchange for certain promises, the negotiations hinged for some time on the insistence of Charles that the right of coinage be relinquished, and the insistence of the knights that it be retained. The knights finally prevailed by assuming in addition the defense of the city of Tripoli.

Coins struck by the grand masters were of gold, silver, and copper and

were comparable in workmanship to that of the times. Early coinage while at Rhodes carried no date and the pieces were of the type and value of the coins of Venice, France and other countries of Europe. Later coins issued at Malta took the denomination of the coinage of Sicily: the granni, tari, scudo and zecchino. The granni was a small copper coin and about 20 of them were needed to make a tari, which was worth about 4 cents of our money. The scudo was worth about 40 cents. Silver coins were minted for 2, 4, 6, 15 and 30 tari, the last being a dollar-sized coin, and also

for 1 and 2 scudi. Gold coins were struck for 10 scudi; 1, 2 zecchini, etc.

Inscriptions on the coins are very interesting. Almost to the end of its existence the order was strongly Roman Catholic, being half-military and half-religious in its organization. The religious influence is strongly reflected, especially in the earlier coinage. The coins of the first grand master to issue money, de Villeret, bear the inscription, "Brother Foulques de Villeret, by the Grace of God, of Jerusalem, Master of the Hospital of the Convent of St. John of Jerusalem at Rhodes." The inscription, in Latin, and abbreviated, occupies two rows around the coin on the obverse.

Coins of Antoine Fluvian, 34th grand master (1421-1437) have, "Let this ducat be given to Thee, O Christ, because Thou dost rule"; Pierre d'Aubusson, 39th grand master (1476-1503) has "Behold the Lamb of God, Which taketh away the sins of the world" on his coins; while L'Isle d'Adam, 43rd grand master, pleads thus, "Brother Philip de L'Isle Adam, Master of the Hospital of Jerusalem, Give me Valor against Thine enemies." He must have received it, since in a long line of illustrious grand masters, his defense of Rhodes stands out.

Early coinage shows the influence of the Greeks with the Greek cross, and again the religious influence is shown by the figure of the grand master or of an angel kneeling in an attitude of prayer. The shield with the coat of arms of the grand master is used almost from the beginning. Many coins, especially the minor ones, have the cross of Malta on one side, and on some the date is set between the four points of the cross. Coins of L'Isle d'Adam have a likeness of the grand master, his cloak bearing on the left shoulder the familiar eight-pointed Maltese cross. Coins of de la Vallette have the cross of Malta on one side, the other bearing clasped hands with the value shown below. Several issues bear the head of St. John the Baptist, patron saint of the order, of whom it is related in the Bible, Matt. 14:10-11, "Herod sent and beheaded John in the prison. And his head was brought in a charger and given to the damsel" (Salome).

It is interesting to note that the coins of Emanuel Pinto de Fonseca, 67th grand master (1741-1773), show a crowned shield with the coat of arms, but instead of the ducal crown over the shield, it is surmounted by a king's crown, indicating that he considered

himself the equal of kings and potentates. All succeeding grand masters likewise used the kingly crown, surmounted by a small Maltese cross.

This series of coins is of especial interest to the student of heraldry. Most of the coins bear on one side a shield with the first and fourth quarters carrying the grand cross of the order, and the second and third the coat of arms of the grand master. Since the grand masters came only from families of noble birth, and from any of the eight countries represented on the council by langues, it can be seen that the device on the shield can be of interest to such a collector.

To the collector interested only in acquiring coins, this series is no more remarkable than any other, but to the numismatist the series is the open door to one of the great stories of the world's history. It is the story of the Knights Hospitallers, a story of faith, courage, honor, charity, zeal, humility, constancy and piety mixed with greed, treachery, cruelty, ambition, and dishonor. It is the story of the history of Europe from 1092 to 1800, with popes, kings, cardinals and emperors all playing a part, some with honor and some with shame. It is the story of the lives of 70 knights who in time became grand masters of this great order of chivalry. It is the story of knighthood, of medieval chivalry, which rose to its heights with the crusades, and after a glorious existence of a thousand years, finally gave way as a dominant factor in world affairs as changing conditions made it unnecessary.

SOME ASPECTS OF COINAGE AND ECONOMICS UNDER CHARLES THE GREAT

By JON NICHOLAS SUTHERLAND, Harvard University

All school boys know of the deeds of Emperor Charles the Great. Known to history as Charlemagne, Charles conquered nations and built what has come to be referred to as the Carolingian Empire. With the success based upon Charles' personality, kings and princes bowed to his prowess as a man and conqueror. Thus, the mighty empire of the ninth century emerged as a personal accomplishment. The traditional trends in European history lay emphasis upon the personal nature of the accomplishment as one of the causes of the rapid disintegration of the Carolingian Empire. Recent historians, such as Ferdinand Lot, F. L. Ganshof, Lynn White and Louis Halphen have brought the empire of Charles into clearer focus. Now, it is possible to examine the achievement of Charles from the standpoint of administrative history. Much has been done and much remains to be done. Fortunately for this writer, all the facets of Charles' administration do not need to be examined here. At present, we are interested only in money. Was there a financial policy which the Frankish emperor chose to follow? Indeed, yes!

In order to grasp any historical development, it is necessary to follow certain threads before the central topic can appear. Thus, the history of Carolingian finance begins sometime during the last days of the Roman Empire in the west. During the fourth century after the birth of Christ, the commissioners of Gaul came to the sad realization that the efforts at financial reform failed to take hold in the Western Roman Empire. As Gaul collapsed before the onslaught of Visigoths, Vandals, Huns and finally, Franks, the financial fiber of the province sank into its nadar. Coiners in Gaul used coins of years gone by or they used coins of the Eastern Empire as models for their issue. A lack of originality had set in before the final collapse of real Roman authority in the west.

The barbarian entry into the West-

ern Roman Empire carried no immediate or devastating break with the pattern of life in the western provinces. Centuries of contact between the barbarian and Roman had conditioned both for closer contact. The barbarians became Christian, though Arian, while the Roman accepted many of the cultural patterns emanating from the German hordes. The first real and permanent break with the Roman world came with the invasion of the Franks. Accepting orthodox Christianity, these Germans permanently replaced Roman and barbarian authority in Gaul, thus establishing a Frankland in place of the *res publica Romanorum*. Probably the last person to admit this complete break with the past would be the Frankish king himself. The ties with the past and the relationship with the Eastern Roman Empire, centered at Constantinople, can be seen in the coinage of the period.

The Franks had no concept of the sophisticated government which the Romans had evolved through the centuries. Instead, the Germans were content to maintain the old tribal customs as well as the Roman system. The machinery of the cities—backbone of Roman economic and social systems—continued to be in the hands of the ancient inhabitants of Gaul. Thus, to a great extent, money continued to be in the hands of the Romans. The coins issued during the sixth and early seventh centuries bear evidence of this phenomenon. What little gold was coined was coined after the fashion of imperial *solidi*. The portraits of Zeno and Anastasius continued to dominate the gold issue of the Franks. However, there was good reason for this. Aside from the continued use of Gallo-Romans as coiners, the Franks had accepted the *solidus* as a *modus vivendi*. For them, the proper coin, from time immemorial, had been the imperial *solidus*. Thus, the rule was to imitate this particular coin. According to the latest numismatic evidence, portraits of Frankish kings did not appear on

gold issue until the reign of Theodebert. Even at this time, the royal portrait was much rarer than the imperial portrait.

The contact with the east, though reduced, still produced a need for gold specie. As trade with the east declined, however, the gold issue became less valuable for Frankish economic life. Frankish society had little in common with the vital civilization of the east. Constantinople surged forward as the major culture center in the Western world. The Eastern Roman Empire slowly dissolved the Latin ties which still clung to the surface of the Greek east. Greek became the official language under the reign of Heraculius. With the defeat of the Persians, the Byzantine emperor assumed the title of Basileos rather than the Latin title of Imperator. Thus, the birth of a truly Byzantine empire. In the West, towns declined, commerce dwindled, and agrarian life emerged as the backbone of Frankish civilization. It was upon this base that the contact between the two cultures ultimately collapsed; that is dwindled to a trickle. Yet, even during the period of least contact, some lines of communication were not lost. Byzantine gold continued to appear in the West, and Merovingian (Frankish) furs appeared in the East. As the contact between the two civilizations slowly ebbed into almost nonexistence, the need for gold in the West disappeared.

The emergence of the Moslems in Western Africa late in the seventh century brought a new contact for the development of coinage. The highly unoriginal coiners of the Merovingian Franks used anything they could lay their hands upon for prototypes. Thus, contact with the Moslems produced the denar for Frankish consumption. The popularity of this small silver grew as did the need for a small, silver coin. In many instances the Franks used the Moslem dies as their own; at other times, the Moslem designs were copied and then issued as Frankish specie. Thus, we have the phenomenon of a Catholic-Christian kingdom producing a coin, proclaiming in an inscription that "there is but one God, Allah, and Mohamet is his prophet". Thus, the confusion in Frankish coinage grew as the troubled times intensified.

On the eve of the Carolingian take-

over, the coinage situation in Gaul stood in complete confusion. Gold, an unnecessary commodity, failed to meet the needs of the new agrarian based society. The silver coinage existed in no standardized form. As a result, complete chaos permeated the financial fiber of the Merovingian-Frankish kingdom. Such an outline of affairs lends understanding to the political collapse in Frankland. The kings, the Merovingian kings, that is, lost their control over the court and their royal powers to the more powerful mayors of the palace, the descendants of Arnulf of Metz—the future Carolingians. Finally a member of this powerful family managed to win the royal title as well. Thus, in 747 the Franks had a new and re-vitalized ruling house. The needed economic reforms, however, were not imminent. It was not until the reign of Charles that any real action was taken.

Pepin, Charles' father, had little time for the time-consuming task of administrative affair. The call of the battle field held the king most of his life. Provinces, such as Aquitaine, and the borderlands held rebellion and the threat of inevitable war. Coinage continued to slip under his administration. The remaining cities continued to issue the specie at irregular intervals. What had once been a jealously guarded royal prerogative slipped into the hands of local officials, magnates, and most of all into the hands of local bishops. Though the king expressed his concern over this matter, other and more pressing matters distracted him from attempting to enforce any general reform of the situation. It was not until the succession of his son Charles in 768 that time was spent in a reformation of the monetary system.

I do not mean to imply that Charles was an innovator. As any study of the period would indicate, he was not. Charles followed many of the economic policies adopted by Pepin. For example, early examples of Carolingian weights—so important to the manufacture of coins—date from the reign of Charles' father. Pepin, however, had little time or luck in gaining any results. It was his son who obtained the results and refined and reformed the ideas of his father.

The contribution to coinage made under Charles was that of systemati-

zation. The slip-shod coinage procedures became the primary target of monetary reform. In order to achieve this, the king re-asserted royal rights over coinage. He forbade the production of coins outside the royal mint. Thus, the Frankish king theoretically retrieved the exclusive royal rights over coinage and modified the monetary system at the same time—or at least, by a similar method.

The basis of the new system was mono-metallic in nature. Charles eliminated production of gold coinage, namely the solidus. Although gold had been on the decline since the first years of Frankish control, production of the solidus persisted. In place, the silver livre became the basis for reckoning debts. Charles was as jealous about protecting his exclusive rights to making this new coin as is the United States over similar rights; he stated "ut in Nullo Loco moneta percutiatur nisi ad curtem". (Quoted from A. Blanchet, *Manuel de Numismatique Française*. Paris, 1912, I, 140)

The power of Charles as a king, and later as an emperor achieved some success for his measures. The dwindling gold issue completely collapsed under the power of Charles' new directives. As a result, all business was reduced to a silver exchange. Charles also managed to retain the exclusive rights of coinage for the palace mint. Private issue became clandestine and disappeared from royal eyes. Such was the success—however, the failure was more important for the course of European history.

Though expedient, the policy of mono-metallic coinage system betrayed the weakness of the economic fiber in general. The use of silver failed to correspond with Byzantine solidus, which was so popular in the Levant. Thus, any lingering trade which may have survived the decline of the past two centuries was jeopardized by the new policy. Such a situation made cultural and economic connections between East and West even more difficult.

Even in short range goals of the ninth century, Charles' policy failed. It did not survive the general collapse of the Carolingian Empire. The great emperor's grandsons were unable to keep the royal facade of exclusive rights to coinage. Private

mints re-appeared and flourished. The clandestine practices of coinage under Charles became legal once again. Thus, the monetary system which had existed before the rise of Charles the Great re-appeared as Western Europe once again sank into economic chaos for another two or three centuries.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

The period of the Carolingians is one which rouses much hot debate among academic circles. Indeed, coinage and the economic systems receive a great amount of the contention. Still, for the English reader, the debate must remain so much of an obscurity. For this reason, I have listed some of the more important contributions to the field in French and German. However, since Russian still remains a *lingua incognita* for most people, I shall refrain from discussing some of the most valuable work produced in this and other Slavic languages.

Among the best surveys of the economic climate of Europe during the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth centuries is the now translated work of Robert Latouche, "The Birth of Western Economy: Economic Aspects of the Dark Ages", (London, 1961). Prof. Heinrich Fichtenau, "Das Karolingische Imperium" (Zurich, 1941) (of which only part has been translated into English) and Louis Halphen, "Charlemagne, et L'empire Carolingien", (Paris, 1947) are two of the most important recent studies of the Carolingian era. Both these studies contain excellent (though contradictory) chapters on the economic problems. Of course, for the aspect of the economic collapse and Later Rome, see M. Rostovtzeff, "Social and Economic History of the Roman Empire", 2 vols., (Oxford, 1957, rev. ed.) for bibliography.

Concerning the problem of east-west trade, of interest are: Howard L. Adelson, "Light Weight Solidi and Byzantine Trade During the Sixth and Seventh Centuries", (New York, 1957); of less interest for economic matters, though essential for East-West relations, is Werner Ohnsorge, "Abendland und Byzanz", (Darmstadt, 1958) and Wattenbach, Levison and Lowe, "Deutschlands Gesichtsqueslen in Mittelalter: Vorzeit und Karolinger", (Weimer, 1953) heft II, and

John Bury, "History of the Later Roman Empire from Arcadius to Irene", (London, 1889), 2 vols.

In this particular period, the Pirenne thesis has played an important role in the development of modern historical thought concerning the economic chaos of the Carolingian times. Henri Pirenne, "Mohammed and Charlemagne", (New York, 1957) should be read by any serious student of the period. However, the theories advanced should be regarded with extreme caution. There is much bibliography on Pirenne and his thesis in Latouche (see above).

Of special interest are the standard works on this subject: M. Prou, "Les

Monnaies Carolingiennes", (Paris, 1896), and E. Gariel, "France Sous la Race Carolingienne", 2 vols. (Strasbourg, 1883, 1884). An article which gathers all the pertinent material and the latest data on the quarrels in this field is: Karl F. Morrison, "Numismatics and Carolingian Trade: A Critique of the Evidence", "Speculum" (vol. XXXVIII, July, 1963), 403-432.

Finally, I wish to thank my friend and teacher Prof. R.J.H. Jenkins of Dumbarton Oaks Research Library, Washington, D. C. (Harvard University), who first suggested the idea of comparative history in the early middle ages to me.

Coins of the Thirty Years' War

By SIDNEY J. HAAS, Oakland

The Thirty Years' War was primarily a religious war, and full of the usual bitterness of such; yet it was full of political quarrels that divided it into a series of separate wars. Many of the military components in this war were private armies that owed their allegiance to their individual leaders, rather than being champions of a cause.

It started when Frederick, Elector Palatine of the Rhine, accepted the throne of Bohemia proffered him by the magnates of that country, while the Emperor Ferdinand considered that crown to belong to him. Fifty years before, the Convention of Passau had compromised the burning issues of the Reformation, but left everything else to the future. All questions as to secularization of church lands, or consecration of Protestant bishops, then came before the normal government machine; a Diet of the Empire so constituted that, though half the princes and nine-tenths of their subjects were Protestants, the voting majority was Catholic. The strongest side was

that representing conservatism, peace and Catholicism. So, when war arose in Bohemia, the princes had formed a Protestant Union, promptly answered by the Catholic League which backed the Emperor. The important Protestant princes, however, jealously opposed aggrandizing the Elector's power, and so declared themselves neutral, and Frederick found himself isolated.

The initial struggles of the war were led by Ernst von Mansfeld, heading a mercenary corps, and Christian of Brunswick, against Tilly, the Emperor's general. The Emperor's revenge upon Frederick alarmed the Protestants, who rallied behind Mansfeld and Christian. Soon France and Spain, England and Denmark were involved. When the Emperor's troops were involved with Gabriel Bethlen, Prince of Transylvania, he employed one Wallenstein, or Waldstein, Duke of Friedland, in Silesia, to raise a mercenary corps to uphold his side. This man, who became one of the outstanding leaders of his time, later was rewarded

by the Emperor with the Duchy of Mecklenburg.

Troops could be controlled when they were paid; but when their side was losing they were not paid, and consequently lived off the countryside. This factor became one of the most important of the war. The leader and the troops must plunder where they were; their movements were to be dictated neither by political nor military considerations. As soon as they had eaten up one part of the country, they moved on.

The war moved from Bohemia to West Germany; North Germany; South Germany; France; Italy; Alsace; Netherlands; Austria and Spain. It was to result in Portugal's regaining independence from Spain; France's occupation of Catalonia, and annexation of the Roussillon and Artois, and of Alsace. It was to give Sweden and its King Gustavus Adolphus a great military reputation, but redound to the disadvantage of the inept John George of Saxony. It would end with a Germany of only 1½-million people; the loss to Ger-



SAXONY — Silver quadruple taler of John George I, hinge pin in the war, who vacillated from one side to the other. He was at first a leader of the Protestant Party. Essentially a peaceful person, he went over to the side of the Emperor, hoping such action would end the war. Actually, it prolonged it. Such coins as this originally were struck by the Duke of Brunswick to raise funds for the war. He required known wealthy men to invest in them, and to show them on demand, so that the location of the wealth would be on record. Other rulers copied the practice.

many and the Empire of what is now northeastern France, Switzerland, Belgium and the Netherlands; it would see a France once more unified, but a Germany broken up into hundreds of independent states.

Coinage associated with the Thirty Years' War includes that of all parties in Germany; Austria, Transylvania, Switzerland, Netherlands, Belgium, France, Sweden, Denmark, Italy and Spain. There are many emergency and siege coinages, including French coinages in Catalonia and Italy, Metz, Strassburg and Besancon.

PARTIES TO THE WAR:

1. Protestant Union
2. Catholic League, and
3. Maximilian of Bavaria, its leader
4. Bohemia, under Frederick the Elector Palatine of the Rhine
5. Mercenary army of Ernst von Mansfeld, for Frederick
6. Moravia
7. Silesia
8. Austria; Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand, another candidate for Bohemia
9. Mercenary army of the League under Tilly, the Emperor's general
10. Christian of Brunswick, titular Bishop of Halberstadt
11. George Frederick of Baden-Durlach
12. Cordova, general for Spinola, Spanish leader against the Dutch
13. France; Richelieu, under Louis XIII and XIV
14. Holland
15. The Lower Saxon Circle
16. English volunteers (mercenary troops) under Sir Horace Vere
17. Christian IV of Denmark, as Duke of Holstein
18. Gabriel Bethlen and George Rakoczy, princes of Transylvania
19. Wallenstein, Duke of Friedland and Sagan, and later of Mecklenburg, as general of a mercenary army for the Emperor
20. Stralsund and other Hanse towns that refused his overlordship
21. Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden
22. John George of Saxony
23. Hesse-Cassel
24. Kurpfalz, the Rhenish Palatinate, under Frederick, and the Swedes
25. Breitenfeld
26. Erfurt
27. Nuremberg
28. Donauwoerth



Photography by Gaetano Arena, San Jose

SPAIN 1623 — 50 reales silver of Philip IV. This denomination was produced under Philip III and IV as a copy of the German practice. Equal to \$6.25, it had no practical value as currency in Spain, which had plenty of gold for large denominations. The silver used was plentifully produced in Mexico. Weight 5 ounces, 8 hundredweight and 4 grains.

29. Luetzen
30. Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, general of a Protestant mercenary army
31. Nordlingen
32. Victor Amadeus, Duke of Savoy
33. Cologne
34. Charles of Lorraine
35. Spain, especially in Catalonia
36. Dunkirk
37. Waldeck
38. Muenster
39. Osnabrueck
40. Freiburg in Breisgau
41. Hesse
42. Wuerttemberg
43. The Rhineland
44. Northern Italy
45. Switzerland
46. Belgium

Thousands of illegal mints were opened by small towns and petty lords who did not have the right of coinage. These "hedgerow mints" issued vast amounts of lightweight and debased coin, to the extent that

the period 1621-23 is called the "kipper period" in Germany. Many coins became permanently devalued. The gulden of Luebeck was called a mark. For 150 years the gulden had been the standard of value in the Hanseatic towns of North Germany. During this war the coins of which it was the standard multiple were so debased that it, as a money of account, descended from half a taler to one-third after 1648. The name "mark" ceased to be used as the name of a coin until 1873, when it was reintroduced as a new standard coin worth one-third of a taler or half a gulden in some states.

These **kipper** coins were often square, or blank on one side. Later a great many emergency coins were issued on square, oblong, or diamond-shaped planchets. They sometimes were siege pieces, and often were in odd values, which were called **klippe taler**, etc., as they appeared to be clipped out with shears.

Dated Coins

By G. L. SCHANZLIN, Springfield, Ohio

There is a good deal of chronology recorded on minted coins, and the history of mankind has had valuable help by the testimony found on existing coins as to dates, names and events in past times. In some cases the history of whole periods has been rediscovered, not only by the exploration or excavation of ancient monuments, but by the reading of the inscriptions or equivalent marks and devices engraved on coin specimens found in the excavations.

While it is true that historical facts often have been established or verified by the discovery of pieces of ancient currencies, it also is true actual dates on coins of the earlier centuries are rare, and their age and the periods of their coinage often has had to be determined by other means of identification.

In fact, in the long history of regular coinage, say two and a half millenniums, we have dated coins from only about the latter half of that period, according to the varying conditions in cultural development and in more advanced systems having regard to the time element in fixing monetary standards by the issuance of coinage.

Both the earlier Greek era and the Roman time up to the beginning middle ages had their more or less well-established systems of recording time by the use of their respective eras, the Olympiads of the Greeks dating in their beginning back to 776 B.C., and the Roman era which started, at least traditionally, with the year 753, the year of the founding of the city of Rome. Apparently the earlier coinage in neither case shows any sign that chronological data were intended to be used in marking or indicating the exact years in which coins were issued. The regal years of rulers in the Greek world and the consulate years of the chief magistrates of the Roman commonwealth in some cases are of help in establishing an orderly numismatic chronology, but one is on safer ground by about 312 B.C., the beginning of the Seleucid era. Syria

under its Seleucid rulers had then become the power controlling the larger part of the Asiatic monarchy, the attempted world monarchy of Alexander the Great. But still the coins of this period, as a rule, lack definite dates, except where dynastic interests provided them as in the case of the house of the Ptolemies in Egypt.

It would unduly complicate this discussion if one tried to consider the rather extensive coinage which had sprung up in Bactria and all the territories of the Punjab and the present Afghanistan. The Parthians, taking over most of the Seleucid territories, had started their own era in 248 B.C. Their well-known coinage shows no marked advance in relation to the dating of coins. However, their monetary history has been dealt with by experts.

When we come to the dating of coins by the use of the years of such well-established eras as the Christian era, or the era of the Islamic world, dating from 622 A.D. (the year of the Hegira, Mohammed's famous flight to Medina, after which this era is named), interesting comparisons can be made. As the victorious Arabs, after the battle of Nehavend, 641 A.D., gradually took over all the huge Neo-Persian empire, extending from the Euphrates to the upper course of the Oxus in Central Asia, they took over with it most of the civilization of the Orient.

The coinage of the Sassanian, or Neo-Persian empire, had had a rather remarkable development, and now became an essential part in the structure of the new Moslem world power. In artistic excellency, the Sassanian silver coins had not come up to the standard of the earlier Greek, Bactrian and Indo-Scythic coins. After the Arabs had taken over the mintage, a new era in numismatic skill and art arose, which deserves closer attention.

No racial or national mythology, no traditional emblems of historic significance, coats of arms presenting dynastic history or pretense, were at

the disposal of Moslem coiners. For awhile the Sassanian tradition forced itself onto the new coinage to such an extent that, horror of horrors, even the pictures of the last Sassanian rulers appeared on the obverse of the dirhems. But soon the devices used conformed strictly to Islamic severity, and the pieces issued by the Omayyads of Damascus, and later on of Andalusia, showed pure Arabic outlines, since Islamic usage, as ordered by the prophet himself, allowed no picturing of any created thing. Within the framework of geometric patterns, the ornamental designs consisted largely of the revelry of the characters of the Arabic alphabet in artistically fanciful arrangements.

The most interesting innovation was the early dating of Moslem coins. As early as the year 30 of the Hegira era, coins appear with the date of issue given in Arabic writing. This was the custom for centuries in all the mints of the Islamic world along the southern shore of the Mediterranean and reaching over in the west to the Iberian peninsula, and in the east touching on India. Later on the dates were given in Arabic figures. Strictly speaking, our so-called Arabic figures, which in form differ somewhat from those used by Moslem countries, had been taken over by the early moslemized Arabs from Indian sources. The decimal system, a corollary to this new numeration, had been developed by an early mathematician, Mohammed ibn Musa of Khiva, the ancient Chorasmia in Western Turkestan. Through him the civilized world of the Orient, and later of the West, has received it. In this new notation for the first time the numerical figures were given the values of their respective positions, an innovation for the lack



SASSANIAN SILVER COIN of Hormazd IV, 578-590 A.D. Obv., bust right, crowned; 3 crescents and stars. Rev., fire altar and attendants. Actual diameter about $1\frac{1}{4}$ in.

of which it would be difficult to imagine the building up of any system of mathematics.

In a succeeding paper the writer hopes to show the resulting history of dated coins down to modern times.

Bronze Tangut Tablet Discovery

By CHARLES V. KAPPEN, *San Jose*

Announcement is made by the writer of his discovery of a bronze Tangut tablet while serving with the Army in the Far East in 1952-53.

This excessively rare piece is one of two such tablets known, the first having been reported by H. A. Ramsden in *The Numismatic and Phila-*

telle *Journal of Japan*, April, 1914, issue. Each of the two known specimens bears four characters in the Tangut script on the obverse, the characters differing on the two pieces. The reverse of the specimen reported by Ramsden has three characters, while the reverse of the writer's find is blank.

Tangut script continues to be an "unknown language" to philologists, even to the Chinese, who describe it as such in their dictionaries. Some Chinese numismatists attribute the script to "foreign" countries, while others believe it is sanscrit. According to Ramsden, recognition of the Tangut language was brought about principally by numismatists, as it was through coins inscribed with Tangut characters that equivalents of some of the signs have become known. Construction of the peculiar script remains unclear.

Ramsden wrote that the Tangut country was an independent state in Northwest China, the native tribes of which were closely allied with the Tibetans. The Mongols called these tribes "Tangut", and it was from this appellation that the country received its name. Founded by Li Te Ming in 1004, the state maintained absolute independence until Genghis Khan finally destroyed it in 1226, after it had existed only 222 years.

"The ruling dynasty," Ramsden said, "was called Hsi Hsia, or Western Hsia, in contradistinction to the regular Chinese dynasty of this same name and which ruled over the Flowery Land between B.C. 2205 and 1818.

"After the conquest by the Mongols, the country was divided into five districts, collectively called Kansu, a combination of the first portions of the names of its two principal cities, Kanchou and Suchou."

The present boundaries of Kansu province are about the same as they were in the days of the old Hsi Hsia or Tangut territories. The name, "Kansu", remains the same. The country was known to Marco Polo and other medieval travelers.

At the time of his writing in 1914, Ramsden listed the only genuine documents known which were written in Tangut as:

"1. An arch with hexaglot inscriptions in the Chu Yung Kuan near

Peking, one of which is in Tangut.

2. The Ta Yun Ssu stele (stone monument at the Great Cloud Monastery giving the history of the Liangchou pagoda) at Liangchou-fu, having on one side Tan-



gut and on the other Chinese characters.

3. Three copper coins of the Western Hsia dynasty (found at Liangchou-fu about 1820) whose legends are in this script.
4. A bronze tablet with Tangut signs, in my (Ramsden's) collection and now published for the first time."

Ramsden conjectured that the bronze tablet, which had been sent to him from Lianchou, might be a passport, as such were used in earlier periods of Chinese history in the form of tags or tickets — or that it might be an amulet or talisman. Sosuke Sekine, Tokyo, in whose collection this second piece reposed for about 45 years, has suggested that it was used as a tax-paying coin. Sekine said he thought it had been issued by Chinese "barbarians" and was copied after the pu.

How Money Was Made in the 16th Century

By John S. Thompson

The first printed book to cover the entire field of metallurgy, and disclose to the world the sciences of smelting, refining and metal working, was written by Vannuccio Biringuccio in the sixteenth century. Such information as had existed prior to that period had been transmitted from father to son, or to other relatives, as trade secrets, and closely guarded from outsiders. Biringuccio was the first to break down these barriers and give to the world their secrets through the new science of printing. He wrote from the standpoint of the practical metal worker with the object of transmitting his accumulated knowledge of the technical details of these crafts.

Vannuccio Biringuccio was born in Siena, Italy, in 1480. At the age of thirty-five he was an employe of the local mint and, with others, was accused of debasing the coinage. Failing to answer the charges he was declared a rebel and exiled as a traitor to the Republic. He fled the country and traveled in Germany and Italy, where he practiced the arts of metallurgy and was engaged in the assaying, casting and working of metals and their alloys. In 1530 he returned to Siena and again entered the service of the Republic and, in 1538, became the head of the papal foundry in Rome and the director of papal munitions. He died in 1539, a year before his *Pirotechnia* was published. It was translated in 1942 by Drs. C. S. Smith and M. T. Gudni.

There had been one or two editions of other printed works on some of the aspects of metallurgy issued prior to Biringuccio's book, but it is doubtful that he obtained anything of practical importance from any of them. Agricola was a contemporaneous author and in his famous *De Re Metallica* of 1556 he says: "By reading his (Biringuccio's) directions, I have refreshed my memory of those things which I saw in Italy." But Agricola copied, without further acknowledgement of authorship, whole chapters of Biringuccio's accounts of the distillation of mercury and sulphur, glass and steel making and the recovery by chrySTALLIZATION of saltpeter, alum, salt and vitriol, together with other less important sections.

De Re Metallica, translated from the Latin by Herbert C. and Lou H. Hoover.

Biringuccio wrote his treatise in the vernacular Tuscanese at a period when most scholars employed the more elegant phraseology of the Latin, but it is unlikely that he was a scholar except in the school of practical experience. He used much of the high-flown rhetoric of the age and indulged in some romantic considerations quite apart from his early subject, such as his last chapter "Concerning the Fire that Consumes Without Leaving Ashes, That Is More Powerful than All Other Fires, and That Has as Its Smith the Great Sun of Venus." This, he says, is the fire of love, which he knew "in his own breast and as my very own and can therefore surely esteem it as hotter than all the other fires that the world calls by that name. Although today its sparks and living flames are spent because of my cold and hoary season, nevertheless it is true that the memory of acts of love of long ago still remains with some smoke and warmth."

He was a true son of Italy to the last.

Considering the fact that Biringuccio had been accused of debasing the coinage of the mint in which he had been employed in his earlier career, he might be considered to have been qualified to write his third chapter of Book Nine: "Discourse and Advice on How to Operate a Mint Honestly and With Profit." He says in part:

"The material handled in this work is most often either gold or silver all ready to be spent, and these things are very attractive to those who handle them. In addition to being made into pieces of money likely to disappear, it is very easy to lose, and whatever part is lacking for any reason whatever brings detriment and loss to the patron since it is a thing of value . . . If through negligence you exceed in perfection you harm yourself without benefit to anyone, and if you fall short, you fail in your duty, and you become known by most people as a disreputable person. Very severe and abusive punishment is often dealt for this in addition to the disgrace. If you choose to proceed in

slight; yet, because it is in many small parts done often, and because as soon as it is finished it has its profit which accumulates, the many small parts multiply in such a way that a great profit results therefrom at the end of the year. If you wish to do it well, it is necessary that you do as much as possible yourself because, in addition to earning yourself what your helpers would earn, you avoid the mob of handlers and their greed."

Biringuccio warns against carelessness in checking the helpers, "for much fraud can be done with these as well as in not refining well. . . . Even though the weight of each one agrees with the assay, if your assayer happens to be also your partner, he can do things to his own great benefit. You must likewise watch the one who melts the parted gold and silver in order to reduce it into one body, and also the one who cuts the plates for making the money."

For making gold coins, Biringuccio describes a process of great antiquity. He says:

"Having brought it by cementation exactly to the carat (minus the amount of fineness that is the remedy granted to you as clear profit by the prince), the quantity that you have or that you wish to work is taken, melted, and cast into bars. These

bars are extended with a hammer on a flat anvil and are all reduced to a certain uniform thinness. These are cut crosswise from the length into little squares like dice so that they turn out a little heavier than the money you wish to make. Then they are cut into pieces all of the same size with a pair of large cutting pincers. They are then annealed in a little frying pan or something else with a red-hot fire of charcoal, after which they are given to the stampers and in one or two blows are all flattened out one by one on a stone. Thus made, they are smoothed by the workers and brought almost to the size that they are to have. In this shape they go to the adjusters who carefully reduce them to the exact weight without any excess. Then they are returned in this condition to the workers who finish smoothing them and rounding them by hammering on the edges. Thus made, they are heated and thrown into a common blanching liquor made with powdered tartar, salt and water, or urine. In this way the gold is cleaned and brightened and then the pieces are washed well with clear water. When dried, they are sent to the dies and thus coined they are finished so that they have only to be spent."

This last detail was, then as now, perhaps the easiest.

GOLDEN MACUQUINAS

By KEN HEDGES, Spring Valley

In reference to the note, page 116 of Fall 1965 issue of Calcoin News, inviting comments on articles, I will offer the following corrections. I refer to the article "Golden Macuquinas," page 126, Fall 1965 issue. The article is in some ways incorrect, in other ways just incomplete. It will be easier to take certain points:

1—The letter "E" referred to in the fourth paragraph is almost certainly the initial of the assayer of the period, not the designer.

2—It might have been pointed out that the words "Peru" and "Potosi" are clearly visible on the reverse, since such details as the motto, in-

scription, and date were pointed out.

3—The correct inscription, abbreviated on the coin, is CAROLVS II DEI GRATIA HISPANIARUM REX (Charles II by the Grace of God King of the Spains, i.e., Spanish dominions), not CAROLVS II — DEO GRATIS—HISPANIA as given in the article.

4—The coat of arms bears the rampant red lions of Leon, and the golden castles of Castille, not "Castille Forts."

5—The date 667 is also visible on the obverse, at the base of the coat of arms.

6--Paragraph four states, "of uneven and milled edge." This should be "unmilled" edge, since cob coins were not milled. Perhaps this is a typographical error.

7--It is stated that the customary weight of the onzas is 27.064 grams, and that the weights of such pieces varies from 34 to 54 grams. Something is wrong here. The question that arises in my mind, since the weight of this piece is almost exactly twice that of the "customary", is "were these coins ever struck in twice the weight and thickness, and thus twice the value, as was often done in central Europe with silver coins?" I am not familiar with Peruvian gold, so cannot offer an answer, but it seems highly unusual that a coin would be double its normal weight without some explanation other than normal variation. I am assuming that the range given for the coins as 34 to 54 grams is some sort of error, since the customary is given as 27.064. This becomes even more puzzling when it is said that "the majority were

minted with reduced weight." This entire paragraph needs drastic revision to make it clear.

Hope I'm not being too rough, but it seems to me that the article could be much more coherent in both content and presentation. With that I will stop.

(Editor's note—

We wish to thank Ken for his comments on this article, and we hope that the author, Gordon Short, will be able to answer a few of the points raised.

Ken referred to a note on page 116, Fall 1965 issue of Calcoin News. For the benefit of all concerned we will repeat this note—

"As editor, I am always glad to receive letters from our members commenting on and giving their version of various articles. It is in this way that we receive additional numismatic information and knowledge.

"Any member may at any time feel free to write me along these lines."

FALL, 1965 GOLDEN MACUQUINAS

By GORDON K. SHORT, Redding

This 1667 Golden Peruvian coin of the mint of Potosi was acquired by the present owner in 1961. The first American acquisition of this coin took place at Cerro de Pasco, Peru, South America, in the winter of 1908-09, by the late Ervin S. Armstrong, engineer for the Braden Copper Co., now a subsidiary of Kennicott Copper Corp.

Since the time of its current acquisition, research in North America, South America and Europe has revealed this coin to be a rare numismatic find.

Recently the above photographs of this coin were acclaimed by these Buenos Aires numismatic authorities: Senor Roman F. Pardo, Ambassador Humberto F. Burzio, Senor Santamarina and other antique experts, as a good coin belonging to the first lot coined in Potosi by Carlos II, last Spanish king of the House of Austria, around the year 1667.

This Peruvian coin is of uneven and milled edge, somewhat shapeless, and

"columnarias" because of the Hercules columns appearing with the inscription "Plus Ultra" on the reverse where the year 667 can also be read, as well as the initial of the designer (E) of that year or period.

The inscription "CAROLVS II — DEO GRATIS — HISPANIA", as well as the coat of arms bearing the lions and Castille forts, the Hercules columns, etc., exactly coincide with the characteristics of this type of coins.

These substantiated statements were concurred by Dr. Juan A. GeHy y Obes, Director of the Museum Brigadier Cornelio Saavedra, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Other dates of this type Golden Macuquinas are known to exist in this museum; however, I have been unsuccessful in my attempts to obtain this information.

Reportedly in the hands of a private collector in Peru these other dates are known: 1633, 1649, 1662, 1668, 1672, 1678, 1690, 1718, 1756 and



1767.

The numismatic authority Senor Xavier Calico of Barcelona, Spain, has written, "The macuquinas are all the coins called in English "cob", minted not only in the Spanish mints of America, but also in Spain previous to the reign of Philip V."

According to the dates above such golden coins of Spanish mints of America are known to exist of the subsequent reigns of Philip V, Fernando VI and Carlos III.

The unusual weight of 54 grams, compared to the customary 27.064 grams of the onzas, points toward the special character of this piece. The weight of such varies between 34 and 54 grams, which is the one I possess, and are the biggest ones of which I know. The majority were minted with

reduced weight.

The 1667 specimen is approximately 70% native gold, with alloy believed to be copper and vanadium. Some such coins are less pure than others.

As to the silver 8 reales dated 1667 of Potosi, Senor Jose Yriarte of Madrid, Spain, in his text "De Los Reales De A Ocho Espanoles" has classified the silver coin as Rarisimo. Mr. Pardo pointed out that in order to obtain complete information regarding value of Golden Macuquinas and history, the "Diccionario de la Monedas Hispanoamerica" by Humberto F. Burzio, edited in Santiago, Chile, in 1958, should be consulted.

This coin is one of the extreme rarities of the Spanish colonial period in South America. No other specimen is known to exist in the United States.

MODERN WORLD FOREIGN



MODERN FOREIGN

The last decade has seen modern foreign coins attract thousands to its collecting fold. The reasons are many, two being of primary importance.

The main reason for collectors entering the modern foreign coin field is the inability of collectors of United States coins to complete their collections due to high prices and inavailability of United States key coins. Being stymied by their efforts, they are, by the thousands, turning to modern foreign coins, which are relatively inexpensive and readily available.

Secondly, is the emergence of the newer nations of the world, and the termination of the preceding countries. Always in the news limelight and historically important, the collector is reminded almost daily of these countries and their fascinating coinages.

The majority of the collections are from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This is due to the many fine articles and catalogs on coins of this period. Woe-fully lacking are catalogs of the earlier centuries. Many collectors of older coins are unable to attribute or price their coins, resulting in small demand for them on the numismatic market.

Most popular are the coins of the twentieth century. Fresh in the minds of the collector is their intriguing history. Ethnic groups are prone to collect the coinage in the very land where the coins circulated, and where the collector lived through their intriguing history. Numismatic pilgrimages to distant lands are a mode of the day.

Leopold the Great of Austria

1657-1705

By ROBERT C. PATTERSON, Daly City

Among the Austrian coins of the Habsburgs probably some of the most interesting and most frequently collected are the coins of Leopold I, sometimes referred to as The Great. No doubt the interest stems from his ugly portrait to which the name "Hogmouth" was attached. Certainly this was what peaked my interest and started me on my collection of his coins.

In time I found there were many rumors but little known fact about this unfortunately invisaged gentleman. The rumors ran that he was a glutton, cruel, brutal, fanatical, etc. No doubt to the originator these seemed to be appropriate characteristics of a man with a countenance of the type the coins portray.

Various reliable sources in history netted information quite contradictory to this gossip. In light of the customs of his times, Leopold was a very mild-mannered gentleman.

Coxe, in his book on the House of Austria, describes him as follows:

"He was of a weak and sickly constitution, low in stature, of a saturnine complexion, ordinary in countenance, and distinguished with an unusual portion of the Austrian lip. His gait was stately, slow and deliberate; his air pensive, his address awkward, his manner uncouth, his disposition cold and phlegmatic. He was attached to the Spanish dress, customs and etiquette, and usually appeared in a coat of black cloth, ornamented with a large order of the golden fleece, scarlet stockings, and a Spanish hat, decorated with a scarlet feather.

"Leopold possessed all the private and domestic virtues; he was pure in his morals, faithful to his marriage, a good father and a kind master. Though reserved in public and with strangers, he was open and facetious with those who formed his private society; and he delighted in the tricks of buffoons and dwarfs, who, according to the custom of the times, formed a part of his establishment."

This is hardly the description of the man I thought I would find behind the face on the thalers I possess.

Leopold the First was not yet 18 when the death of his father called him to the regency of Hungary, Bohemia and all the Austrian dominions.

Louis XIV was to be Leopold's constant enemy throughout his long reign, and the source of most of the difficulties he encountered. His first taste of this opposition was in the contest for the imperial crown, which had been worn by the Habsburgs so long it was considered their rightful property.

After much intrigue instigated by Mazarin, Louis' all-powerful minister, the title of "Holy Roman Emperor" was finally unanimously bestowed on Leopold July 31, 1657.

Leopold came to power when the descent of the Empire was becoming apparent and it was neither holy nor Roman. He appears to be one of the first to recognize the waning influence of the empire and to see the importance of unifying the principalities of his various dominions to make the crown of Austria a more influential and powerful one than it previously had been.

He was educated for the church rather than the crown and only the early demise of his brother brought him to the regency. He even had passed through the probationary exercises to become a Jesuit before his prospect for a far more influential life occurred. From this early training he acquired a multifarious knowledge and was called one of the most learned princes of his time. While he was by no means a dynamic leader, he instituted many reforms which made for much better government.

The early habits and principles acquired from the Jesuits, however, could never be thrown off and he displayed the virtues of a professor or recluse far more than those of a king. He was interested in all the sciences of his day, he had a great

knowledge of the Latin language and style, he wrote fables and anagrams, and had great judgment in painting and art. He was both a composer and performer of music and, although his funds were limited, was a liberal patron of the arts and sciences. He founded universities and promoted education throughout his territories.

The two principal defects and embarrassments in his character and administration can be traced also to the early training of the Jesuits. These were religious intolerance and the precept of the divine right of kings. It is unfortunate that acts performed from these two prejudices greatly tarnish the luster of his reign.

Although, through his education, his philosophy was extremely influenced by the church, he did show great liberality in many things. He had the feeling his education had illy equipped him for the duties of a sovereign. Aware that the Jesuits influenced his thinking and that of the prior Habsburgs for their own advancement, he did not intrust them with the education of his children as had been the custom with the royal family previously. In the same spirit of liberality, he instructed the teachers of his sons not to conceal the errors of his own administration but to hold them up as a warning against similar errors in the future.

It could be said he was ideally suited to his times. The despotism and intolerance of his grandfather, Ferdinand II, had led to jealousy and terror and many restrictions of the imperial authority. Even though his father, Ferdinand III, ruled with prudence and moderation, this prejudice could not be overcome. The phlegmatic character of Leopold matured the wise and reasonable government of his father. Through the assistance of great generals and able ministers and a series of fortunate events, he was able to restore some of the imperial authority and declining grandeur of the House of Austria.

While he was not of a warlike character and never led his own armies, his countries were at war during most of his reign. Many of these were wars stemming from French aggressiveness due to Louis XIV's greedy ambitions. Louis seemed either to be tampering with the German states which were a part

of the empire; inciting the Turks to further aggressions on Austrian territory; or instigating methods for the House of Bourbon to be eligible for the succession to the Spanish throne which long had been a possession of the Habsburg line. None of these things could be allowed by Leopold.

In these wars Leopold was assisted by some very able generals. Possibly the greatest black mark on Leopold's character was his action at the time of the siege of Vienna. Due to internal rebellion in Hungary and Louis' aid, the Turks in 1683 overran Hungary and part of Austria and lay siege to Vienna. Much to the disgrace of the imperial family, they fled to a safer location and left the city of Vienna to its own defense. Thanks to the help of the German troops under Charles of Lorraine and the Polish army under John Sobieski, King of Poland, the Turks were routed at a time when the natives had given up all hope.

The Viennese showed Sobieski such adulation and gratitude, it peaked Leopold's jealousy. It is said that when the King of Poland rode through the streets, the people would kiss his feet. When the royal family returned to Vienna, the natives ignored them. In a state of jealousy, Leopold was perfunctory and formal in his thanks to Sobieski, performing only that which his position required him to do. Later, his revenge on the people of Hungary for aiding the Turks took such drastic steps Sobieski withdrew his troops to Poland and said he never again would come to the aid of Austria other than to fight the Turks.

Induced by the Jesuits to persecute Protestants and motivated by the will to render the Hungarian crown hereditary, Leopold took drastic steps to bring the people of Hungary to subservency. He appointed a commission of Austrians to rule on the crimes of these people. This effort contributed to the bloody butchery at Eperies where every person distinguished for wealth, popularity or influence, or suspect of disloyalty to the crown, was tortured and executed. It is reported that 30 executioners were kept busy night and day for 30 days executing the sentences.

Such cruelty was common at the time of Leopold, but it seems com-

pletely contradictory to his character in other things.

He was excessive with his charities to the poor and needy. To such an extent did he donate to the church and charity his advisers frequently criticized him for depleting his finances. To this he would retort if Louis XIV could lavish fortunes on mistresses and useless luxuries, he should be commended, rather than condemned, for his charity.

Much of the mismanagement of his countries was due to the bad state of finances. The whole of the ordinary revenue from direct taxation was made up of the subsidies granted yearly by the various diets, which were very jealous of their power and authority. This income was practically stationary and never

increased other than for exceptional circumstances. This led to many taxes on such items as playing cards and hair powder and the institution of the lottery, which remained one of the financial institutions of Austria for many years.

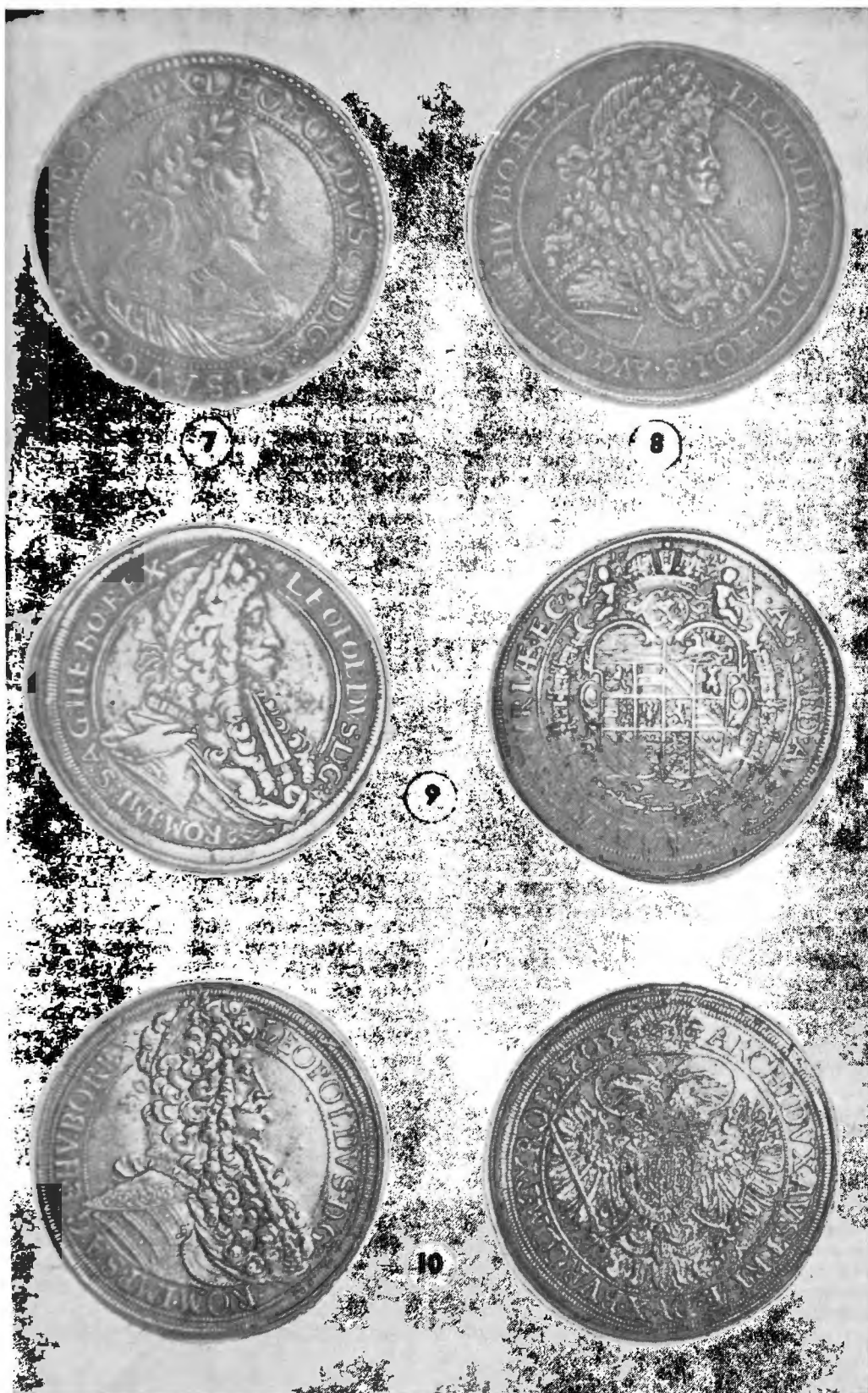
The individuality of the finances of the various principalities is exhibited by the coinage of each, such as Tyrol, Styria and Hungary. These principalities were well aware of the importance of money to any sovereign and used their power to grant revenue to a great extent as a bargaining device.

Due to the changes in implements of war and the methods of waging war during Leopold's reign, he was induced to make many improvements in his army. Eugene, the genius



KEY TO PLATES — (1) 15-kreuzer, Carinthia, 1675; (2) 3-kreuzer, Bohemia, 1666; (3) half thaler, Hungary, 1699; (4) thaler, Hungary, 1662; (5) double thaler, Tyrol, n.d.; (6) double thaler, Tyrol, n.d.; (7) thaler, Hungary, 1659; (8) thaler, Hungary, 1692; (9) thaler, Styria, 1698; (10) thaler, Austria, 1703. All Hungary pieces are of Kremnitz Mint. Nos. 1, 4 and 6 are from the Rudy Gjurovich collection. Remaining numbers are from the Robert C. Patterson cabinets. Coins illustrated actual size. Photography by Simon R. Steinreich, San Jose State College.





whom we find helping Maria Theresa so very much in later years, advised him in this reorganization. In this he followed the lead of the German state of Prussia, which already had modernized its army. It is an ironical fact that it was Leopold who consented to Frederick III of Brandenburg crowning himself king of Prussia with the title of Frederick I, thus giving rise to one of the greatest military powers of all time, and one which was destined to give the Habsburgs a lot of trouble in future years.

Leopold deserves high praise for the reorganization of the judicial functions of his countries. He laid aside the Caroline Code which was noted for its severity in punishments. He forbade judicial appeals to foreign countries, introduced the use of the German tongue in the courts, and otherwise organized reforms in the

courts which so greatly affected the common people.

He hired more regular and better police and established lighting on the streets, the expense of which was defrayed by a tax on foreign wine. This may seem unimportant to us now, but to the resident and traveler in Vienna in the 17th Century, this must have been a most important improvement.

It certainly can be noted here that if Louis XIV had spent less time with intrigue and war and more time making some of the reforms to help the common citizen of France, as Leopold did in Austria, the House of Bourbon might never have come to such a disgraceful end in the French Revolution. It will be remembered Austria never did go through such a revolution and the Habsburgs ruled until 1918.

—THE END

MY MOST INTERESTING COIN

By FRED E. TINKHAM, Hanford

So much has been written about the Maria Theresa thaler that I feel sure most coin collectors are familiar with the story of that coin. However, I believe that the following facts, closely related to Maria Theresa and her coin are unknown to most collectors.

Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria, and wife of Francis I of Germany, was the mother of sixteen children. Her fifteenth child, and eleventh daughter, was named Maria Antonia Josepha Johanna, and received the title of Archduchess. Of Maria Theresa's eleven daughters only six grew to womanhood. They were named Maria Anna, Maria Amelia, Maria Christina, Maria Elizabeth, Maria Caroline and Maria Antonia.

Maria Theresa had long cherished an ambition for a French and Austrian alliance and was ready for anything that would achieve it, even to sacrificing her youngest daughter. An engagement was arranged with

Louis XV for her marriage to the French Dauphin, his grandson.

Maria Antonia was called by her second name, Antonia or Antoinette, never being called Marie Antoinette except by history.

Marie Antoinette, at the age of 14½ years, was married on May 16, 1770 to a man whom she had first seen but a few days earlier. She was hated by the French, as they hated all foreigners. What was not French was nothing; the world was French or barbarian.

Victims of the French revolution, Louis XVI went to the guillotine on Jan. 21, 1793, and Marie Antoinette followed him on Oct. 17, 1793.

I call the Maria Theresa thaler my most interesting coin because of its historical connection with the town of Wiscasset, Maine, the birthplace of my mother, where I spent many happy days as a boy.

Capt. Nathaniel Cloud of Wiscasset,



Maine, the father of six boys and five girls, with their assistance, built a 300 ton schooner which he named the "Sally of Wiscasset", for one of his daughters.

Frank Swan, son of an exporting firm executive in Boston, interested Capt. Cloud in taking a cargo of lumber and tobacco to Havre, France, for sale.

Some time previous to sailing, Frank Swan married the daughter Sally, and they both sailed on the vessel with Capt. Cloud.

When nearing the coast of France, the vessel and its cargo were seized in the name of King Louis XVI by the French frigate Belle Poule. Frank and Sally Cloud journeyed to Paris in an effort to secure release of the vessel and cargo, and while there both were thrown into prison. Frank was taken to the Luxembourg, and Sally to the Conciergerie, where after a few days the Queen Marie Antoinette was imprisoned, and it was Sally's duty to wait upon her.

Soon a plot was formed for Marie Antoinette's release. She was to be spirited to America on the "Sally of Wiscasset", under command of Capt. Cloud.

A refuge had been prepared on Squam Island, now Westport, directly across the Sheepscot River from Wiscasset, where the French queen was to be concealed after her escape from Paris. Known as the Marie Antoinette house, I believe it to be still standing.

The belongings of the unhappy family had been taken from the Tuilleries and placed on board the "Sally of Wiscasset" and all was in readiness to sail once the queen was aboard.

The day for her release arrived. It had been arranged that a mob of friends should enter the jail and during the confusion Marie Antoinette would be spirited away. These arrangements worked out as planned, but the queen refused to go, saying: "I am no longer queen. I say to you one and all, I prefer death by the guillotine, as my poor husband died, to life with the knowledge that my children have been robbed of their future."

The "Sally of Wiscasset" sailed without Marie Antoinette, who went to the guillotine on Oct. 17, 1793. She did not live to regret her decision.

(Author's note: The book, from which most of this material was secured, "A Royal Tragedy", by Nat Wilder, Jr., has been out of print for many years, and is not presently available from any library in the State of California, or so I am told by my local librarian.)

Modern English Coinage

ELIZABETH I — ELIZABETH II

By CLIVE F. FOSS, La Mesa

This article is only a brief outline of modern English coinage. To be really comprehensive, it would take more space than is available. However, for those interested in pursuing the subject further, a bibliography is included (see Appendix I). It also might be mentioned here that this article is intended to discuss primarily the silver and copper issues. To cover the gold coinage at all well, a separate article would be required.

The accession of Elizabeth I in 1558 was marked by a reform in the coinage. All the debased shillings coined under Edward VI (1547-1553) were called in and melted down, and new coins of finer metal were issued. These coins were hammered and issued in 11 denominations (see Appendix II). Later in her reign, the experiment of issuing milled coins was tried, and though these were far superior to the previous issues, the



HENRY VIII
AR groat, 1509-1547, London. Second
coinage, mm. arrow; actual size



ELIZABETH I
Sixpence, 1568, mm. crown
Actual size

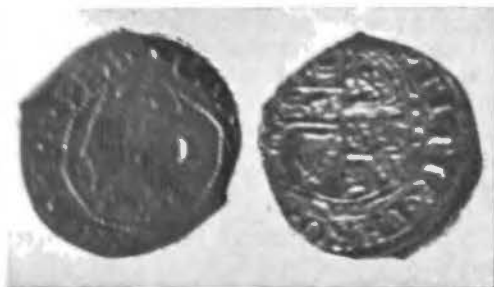


EDWARD VI
Fine shilling, 1551-1553, third period
Mint mark tun; actual size

experiment was discontinued, since the established workmen of the mint were worried for their jobs, and therefore raised all possible objection to the new machinery.

During Elizabeth's reign, there was a great shortage of small change, and the various shopkeepers issued their own tin and lead tokens. To remedy this, a copper coinage was designed. Patterns of these were made in 1574 and later years, but they never were issued. It was not until 1613 that copper coins were issued regularly. James I authorized Lord Harrington to strike them, and the issue was continued through the reign of his successor, Charles I.

During the reign of Charles I, milled coins again were issued, but, as in the reign of Elizabeth, they met with a great deal of opposition, and were not continued. The coinage of



CHARLES I
Silver penny, 1649
Enlarged 2:1

this reign is noticeable also for the many provisional issues during the English Civil War (1642-1649). At that time, silver coins were made from private plate in denominations as high as one pound, and square, diamond, or octagonal-shaped coins were issued at the King's Mints of Carlisle, Colchester, Newark, Pontefract, and Scarborough when they were being besieged by the Parliamentary forces.

The Parliamentary forces under Cromwell won the war, and then proceeded to issue a very unimpressive and ugly series of coins, which, incidentally, were the only regular English coinage to have the legends on them in English, instead of Latin. Under Oliver Cromwell, no coins were regularly issued, although a beautiful series of milled patterns were struck but never circulated.

In the reign of Charles II, a major change in the coinage was made. In 1662, hammered coins finally were abolished, and, since that date, all



CHARLES II
Halfpenny, 1673; Enlarged 1¼:1

English coins have been milled. During that period, also, copper coins again were issued, after a lapse of 24 years. At the same time, to remedy the shortage of small change, a tremendous amount of copper tokens was issued by various towns and merchants. The issue was illegal, but the government did not try to suppress it. Finally, in 1672, a proclamation forbade their use, and a new issue of copper coins was made. To



GEORGE I
"Dump" halfpenny, 1717
Enlarged 1¼:1

prevent forgery, however, these were discontinued toward the end of the reign, and tin coins with a copper center were issued. In 1694, though, the government reverted to the issue of copper coins, and these continued uninterrupted until the reign of George II, as did the silver coinage, which had become standardized under Charles II.

In the reign of George II, the minting of the minor silver coins (4d., 3d., 2d., 1d.) was discontinued, and since that date, these denominations (except the threepence) have been issued only as "Maundy" money each year.

The accession of George III (1760) found the English coinage in quite a mess. There was a great shortage of silver and the only regular government issue of it between 1760 and 1816 was in 1787 when a great number of shillings and sixpences were issued. In 1798 some shillings were struck but not issued. To remedy this, Spanish coins were imported and countermarked with the King's head for general circulation. This drew the following comment, among many

others: "The Bank of England, to make its dollars pass, impressed the head of a fool on the head of an ass." After this, the Bank of England issued token dollars in 1804, and smaller pieces in 1811-1816; also, paper money was made legal tender in 1811.

The copper coinage of this period was no better off than the silver, since the issue of it had been suspended in 1754 owing to forgery. During this period, there was another great issue of tokens, although the government made four issues of copper—1770-1775, 1797 (the "cartwheel" coins), 1799, and 1806-1807. A major issue of tokens took place in 1787, and again in 1811, after which they finally were suppressed.

The final coinage of George III, in 1816, marks a major change in the English coinage. It was then that

England went onto the gold standard, all silver and copper coins becoming subsidiary money without equivalent intrinsic value. At that time, the first gold sovereigns were issued, and so were new silver coins, which have remained relatively unchanged until the present day.

The copper coinage remained without any major break until 1860, when it finally was discontinued. Since that time, all minor English coins have been made of bronze.

From 1816 to 1920, the silver coinage remained stable, but in 1920, it was debased, becoming only 50 per cent silver, because of the high price of silver. Finally, in 1947, silver was abandoned altogether, and the denominations from the crown to the sixpence since have been made of a copper-nickel alloy. The Maundy money, however, has remained unchanged, and still is being made of fine silver.

The last regularly issued gold coins were in 1925, although proof gold coins were issued at the coronation of George VI. The recent coronation of Queen Elizabeth II has been the first one since that of Edward III (1327) when there has been no issue of gold.

Although this article of necessity



GEORGE III
"Cartwheel" twopence, 1797
Actual size



VICTORIA
"Godless" florin, 1849
Actual size

has been brief, and therefore could not cover the subject too well, it nevertheless is hoped that it will serve its purpose in providing an outline of the Modern English Coinage, which can prove to be a very interesting field.

APPENDIX I

The following books are suggested for anyone interested in pursuing the subject further:

- BROOKE, G. C.: *English Coins*. London, 1950.
 OMAN, SIR CHARLES: *The Coinage of England*. Oxford, 1931.
 RUDING, R.: *Annals of the Coinage*. London, 1840.
 SEABY, H. A. and P. J.: *Standard Catalogue of the Coins of Great Britain and Ireland*. London, 1954.
 SEABY, H. A. and P. J.: *A Catalogue of the Copper Coins and Tokens of the British Isles*. London, 1949.
 SEABY, H. A.: *Notes on English Silver Coins* (2 Vols.) London, 1949.
 SEABY, P.: *The Story of the English Coinage*. London, 1950.

APPENDIX II

The following denominations of English silver and copper coins have been issued since the time of Elizabeth I. The dates are approximately when they were issued during this period.

SILVER:

- 20 Shillings (1642-1643)
- 10 Shillings (1642-1643)
- 5 Shillings or Crown (all of this period)
- Dollar (1804)
- 4 Shillings (1887-1890)
- 3 Shillings (1811-1816)
- 2 Shillings and Sixpence or Half-crown (All this period)
- 2 Shillings or Florin (1849-Present)
- Eighteenpence (1½ Shillings) (1811-1816)
- 1 Shilling (All this period)
- Sixpence (All this period)
- Groat or Fourpence (1558 - 1727, 1836-1855, 1888)
- Threepence (1558-1727, 1845-1945)
- Twopence or Halfgroat (1558-1727)
- Three-halfpence or 1½d. (1561-1582; 1835-1862)
- Penny (1558-1727)
- Threepfarthings (1561-1581)
- Halfpenny (1583-1660)
- Maundy Sets (1727-Present)

ALUMINUM-BRONZE:

- Threepence (1937-Present)

COPPER, TIN or BRONZE:

- Twopence (1797)
- Penny (1797-Present)
- Halfpenny (1672-Present)
- Farthing (1613-Present)
- Half Farthing (1828-1856)
- Third Farthing (1827-1885)
- Quarter Farthing (1839-1853)

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS OFTEN ASKED ON

Chinese, Japanese and Korean Coins

By ALAN D. CRAIG, Berkeley

1. Q: Does Japanese or Korean coinage go as far back as Chinese?

A: No. Chinese knife-shape coinage with six characters, "Everlasting Legal Money of Ch'i at the Establishment of the State", is authoritatively tentatively dated between 1079 and the first half of the ninth century, B.C. This NW Honan money itself

may have been styled from yet older Chinese coinage of a bordering state — possibly Chi-mo (tip of Shantung peninsula). In Japan, issue of round hole-center coins with four characters, "Japanese Copper Introductory Treasure", began in 708 A.D., and Korean iron coins — a Chinese-coin obverse with "Korea" on the reverse — came out in 996 A.D.

These appear to be the oldest known Chinese, Japanese and Korean coins. Miscellaneous objects used monetarily before, during and after are many, from which objects monetary prototypes, then coins and monetary systems sprang.

* * *

2. Q: Seen on modern coins of both countries, did the dragon originate in China or Japan?

A: There are undatable and ancient references from this and other parts of the world to dragons. Nature originated "dragons" in Paleozoic time.

* * *

3. Q: The dragon on the coins has to do with what Chinese religion or philosophy, and what does this design mean?

A: The dragon has to do with all East Asia, whose general religions and philosophies complementarily blend — unlike the West's more usual situation of "this irreconcilable belief, that irreconcilable belief, yonder irreconcilable belief" et seq. and comparative religious disjointing of the actual from the metaphysical. East Asian religions, philosophies and allied institutions are from a lineage of innate tolerance and union, and the dragon symbol gained usages not only in philosophies and religions but in much of East Asian life in general.

The dragon design on the coins betokens happiness and salvation through sharing in striving for supreme perception and propriety. The dragon strives after a mystical spherical Symbol which is, by cause of such a concordant religious and philosophical environment, an impressive presentation of God in effect, and this is how: In Buddhism, the Sphere is interpreted as a marvelous glowing pearl: the sacred Pearl of Perfection; in Taoism, the sacred Yueh Pearl which grants all needs. It also was interpreted as the sun, and as Yin Yang, the divinely wise spontaneity of things. Perfection and needs filled likened to the pearl's beauty and marketability, solar glory likened to parentage in a life cycle, Yin

Yang's guidance likened to harmonious paradise: worldly parallels of and kinship to divine marvels, introduced as one — by a religious and philosophical unity — appear to be of a unified Identity indeed.

Age-old symbol of the Chinese Empire, the dragon expressly portrayed the emperor. Dual imperial dragons seeking an illustrious Sphere of achievements the better to serve and inspire their people, portrayed the dynasty's emperors perpetually following one another in the sublimer quest. The design's theme was empire, dynasty and emperors seeking together greatness of a Holy and transcendent kind. No malign beings, these dragons!

* * *

4. Q: How does the Japanese dragon differ from the Chinese and Korean on modern coins?

A: The Japanese is one dragon which clutches the Sphere in its right front talons. The often smaller in-size Sphere is striven after and not clutched by the dual dragons on the one dragon on Chinese modern coins and on pre-1892 Korean. On post-1891 Korean coins, a dragon clutches the Sphere.

East Asian Allegory of Imperial Dragons and Mystic Sphere



The Sphere's appendage is by way of a halo.

5. Q: Doesn't the sprawling dragon seem ugly for a coin design?

A: The dragons are not "sprawling"; they are heraldic. This design is not ugly; it is a symbol of utilitarian revelation, one of eternal value, appeal and beauty. Happiness and salvation through sharing in striving for supreme perception and propriety is, indeed, the essence of all logical religion and philosophy.

World Trade Dollars

By R. G. McARTHUR, Oakland

Most coin collectors are, more or less, familiar with the United States trade dollar. They are aware that these pieces, struck in quantity from 1873 to 1878 and dwindling down to proofs only in 1884 and 1885, were intended for circulation in the orient. However, few know the story behind these interesting coins.

It all began with the founding of the mint of Mexico, in the year 1536. This mint, incidentally, was the first for many years to be established on the American continent. From that time, 1536, to late in the 19th century, the Spanish dollar or piece of 8 reales, followed by its successor, the Mexican peso, was the preferred instrument of exchange in the Far East.

According to the Mexican version, their competitors in the oriental markets grew tired of counterfeiting the peso and struck special coins of their own. These special pieces or "trade dollars" will be discussed in their chronological order.

The first to appear was the Hong Kong dollar, issued by Great Britain from 1866 to 1868. Hong Kong, as you know, is a small island off the southeastern coast of China, at the mouth of the estuary leading to Can-

ton. It was ceded by China to Great Britain in 1841. The Hong Kong dollar was not immediately successful and soon was discontinued.

The next to enter the race was the Japanese trade dollar, issued from 1875 to 1878, which was closely followed by the aforementioned United States trade dollar. These two were similar in that both originally were intended for trade purposes only, but later had legal tender status in their own countries. The Japanese trade dollar was moderately successful, but was discontinued when its legal tender status was canceled. Unlike its United States counterpart, however, it later was revived to pay Japanese armies in China and Formosa.

According to Mexican historians, the United States trade dollar gave the peso its toughest competition. It circulated in Singapore, Penang, Bangkok and Saigon and was sold for its weight and value in Swatow, Amoy, Foochow and Canton.

France got into the act in 1885, with its piastre de commerce. This coin, struck at the Paris Mint, circulated rather freely in Asia until early in the 20th century. Thereafter, until its demise in 1928, its export was



PILLAR DOLLAR OF CHARLES III, CHOPMARKED



MEXICAN 8-REALES, PORTRAIT TYPE, CHOPMARKED



HONG KONG DOLLAR, 1866-1868



JAPANESE TRADE DOLLAR, 1875-1878



UNITED STATES TRADE DOLLAR, 1873-1885



FRENCH INDO-CHINA, PIASTRE DE COMMERCE



BRITISH TRADE DOLLAR, 1895-1935

forbidden and it was restricted to use in French Indo-China. Proofs were struck for the Antwerp Exposition of 1885 and the Paris Exposition of 1889 and 1900.

The British again entered the field in 1895 and due to a shortage of pesos and yen, their trade dollar was moderately successful. It was coined at the Bombay Mint, the Calcutta Mint and, since 1925, a few times at the Royal Mint in London. It continued to be a contender until 1935, when it lost popularity and went the way of the others. This coin is unique in that the denomination is indicated in three languages, English, Chinese and Malay.

Although it was not intended primarily for use in the orient, this article would not be complete without some mention of the Maria Theresa taler. This coin, unique in that all pieces bear the date 1780 regardless of year issued, was first struck in Vienna, during the reign of the Empress Maria Theresa. It continued to circulate in Arabia and Africa, particularly Abyssinia, as late as 1938.

Any attempt to change the date or to alter the coin in the slightest

detail resulted in its rejection by the natives. It has been said that they even counted the beads in the necklace around Maria's neck, and if just one bead were missing, the coin was condemned. So, to the average person, all look exactly alike, even though struck over a period of 150 years. An expert, however, probably could detect some slight differences in workmanship or metal.

After the Italian invasion of Ethiopia, Italy purchased the dies from Austria and attempted to issue the talers. In doing so, they are said to have debased the coinage, resulting in the natives' refusal to have any part of them (this, Italians deny).

Soon thereafter, England, France and Belgium, in turn, coined and issued the talers, bringing to five the number of governments legitimately issuing this coin. I say legitimately, for, in view of the number of proofs recently offered for sale, some person, corporation or government again is striking the same old 1780 Maria Theresa taler.

* * *

Illustrations enlarged by $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$.
Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis.

Pieces of Eight

By DAN HARLEY, Pomona

"And the parrot would say, with great rapidity, 'Pieces of eight', till you wondered that it was not out of breath."

—Treasure Island

Pieces of eight! Magic words are these for they conjure up visions of unwieldy galleons, swash-buckling buccaneers and hidden treasure. Known to the English speaking world as Spanish Milled Dollars, they were familiarly called "pieces of eight" because their value was eight reales. They trickled into early California as coin of the realm.

These historic coins were first struck at the Mexico City Mint on March 29, 1732. It was an auspicious occasion. Marquez de Casafuente, Viceroy of Mexico, was present as were Jose Fernandez Veitia Linaje, superintendent of the mint, and Francisco Menller, the mint die-sinker.

The front or obverse side of their coin drips with symbolism. Their crowned pillars represent the Straits of Gibraltar, known to the ancients as the "Pillars of Hercules." According to legend, these pillars were once united and were torn asunder by Hercules in one of his fabulous feats of



strength. Between the pillars, the two hemispheres under a royal crown denote the Spanish King's claim to dominance of both the Old and New Worlds.

The theme of the union of the two worlds is borne out by the motto, "Utraque Unum," meaning "both are one." The joined hemispheres rest on a wavy, semicircular base, indicative of Spain's claim to mastery of the seas that washed the shores of the two worlds.

These coins, also called "pillar dollars," were minted only in the Spanish colonies. They were produced at mints in Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Peru and Guatemala, but the total output of these provinces cannot compare with the 478,305,907 pieces struck in Mexico City between 1732 and 1772.

Pieces of eight were minted under three Spanish kings, Philip V from 1732 to 1746; Ferdinand VI from 1747 to 1759; and Charles III from 1760 to 1772. It is interesting to note that so slow was news to travel that when Philip V died in July 1746, coins in his name were minted into part of 1747, and when Ferdinand VI passed away in August 1759, coins bearing his name were struck in the following year.

Pillar dollars quickly made their way through the world. They were sent by ship to California from Acapulco, Mexico, in exchange for goods and for payment of salaries of officials and the soldiery. They were the only coins during the eighteenth century that had world-wide acceptance and consequently were used as a standard of value.

Due to the lack of smaller denominations the Spanish Milled Dollar was frequently cut into eight pieces, called bits, from which comes the expression "two bits," "four bits," etc.

These fascinating coins are of great interest to students of American history. During colonial times they were very popular among some 30 different kinds of money in circulation. The Continental Congress made its currency payable in Spanish Milled Dollars. Failing to redeem these notes gave rise to the slang expression of "not worth a continental."

In 1782 the Congress of the Confederation ordered Robert Morris, Superintendent of Finance, to report "a table of rates at which the different species of foreign coins most likely to circulate within the United States." His study revealed that the Spanish Milled Dollar came nearest to a general standard.

Following the adoption of the Constitution, Congress established a monetary system with the "piece of eight" as a pattern for its dollar. Moreover, in 1793 it adopted a law providing that after three years "all foreign silver coins except Spanish milled dollars and parts of such dollars, shall cease to be legal tender." In 1797, President John Adams issued his proclamation to enforce the statute. Interestingly enough, "pieces of eight" were legal tender in the United States until 1857. Just a few years before they had been pushed from the pedestal of popularity in California by gold bullion and gold coins.

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Reprinted from the February 1957 issue of *California Herald*, official publication of The Native Daughters of the Golden West.



A Coin Collector's View of India

By L. N. KUKURANOV, San Francisco

Strangely enough the country which has every right to claim a pre-dominant place among the nations of the world in respect to numismatic wealth only of late has become conscious of its riches in this fascinating domain of human endeavor. Whereas Chinese numismatic works go back to the early centuries of our era, and we possess catalogs of coin collections built up under some rulers of Imperial China, her neighbor—India—had to wait for the British scholars of the nineteenth century to make her realize the presence of an untapped gold mine of numismatic material scattered throughout her vast territory.

The first and only numismatic society in India was founded as late as December 1910 by a group of five Britishers and one Indian, and even as late as 1957 its membership was less than 250, including individual and institutional members abroad. Until lately practically all the leading museum coin collections and their catalogs in India, as well as the greater part of authoritative numismatic literature on Indian coins, represent the results of untiring efforts of British and other foreign scholars. Naturally a few outstanding Indian scholars in this field likewise have made some very valuable contributions.

Now that India has entered the second decade of her independence, and her multiracial millions are gradually becoming more closely welded together into a national entity, a serious interest in this branch of archeological studies is bound to grow and

to attract fresh native talent.

To stimulate interest in the study of coin material is of particular importance for the historical research work, as India is sadly deficient in written records of her past for the long period preceding the Muhammadan conquests, which began on a large scale toward the end of the twelfth century. For that very reason coins in India more than anywhere else have been serving as a valuable source of information, often as the only one, about the names of the rulers, the religious cults, costumes, ornaments and arms, the written language of the time, to mention but a few data throwing some light on the otherwise entirely blank stretches of her distant past.

Many such vacuums still remain unfilled; many questions continue to call for answers. The challenge is ever present, though a good deal of progress has been achieved.

The history of the Indian sub-continent has been a turbulent one. The excavations at Mohenjo-daro in the Indus Valley tend to indicate that the end to the large and prosperous city in that area, possibly dating back to the third millennium B.C., came as a result of a foreign invasion.* The first precise historical date in Indian history is directly connected with another attack on her northwestern principalities—the campaign of Alexander the Great who crossed into India in 326 B.C.

**India, a Short Cultural History*. H. G. Rawlinson, London, 1938. See pages 17-18.

All the subsequent centuries up to the times of the British rule are filled with almost unrelenting warfare in one or several parts of Hindustan. No wonder that the population was living in perpetual fear of foreign invaders, or some soldiery of a native state, and had to take recourse to hiding their valuables, gold and silver coins included, in the bosom of mother-earth, while seeking a temporary refuge elsewhere. A good portion of such concealed treasure was never recovered by the owners but came into possession of lucky finders centuries later, or still remains buried in the ground.

Year in, year out, new finds of hidden deposits of old coins in all three metals are discovered and, at least partially, reported to authorities as treasure troves. There is a continual flow of numismatic material awaiting study and publication. Undoubtedly a good part of such finds is carefully concealed and disposed of by secret sales to jewelers and bullion merchants, and some come into possession of genuine coin collectors and dealers, too. Occasionally Indian museums acquire from such treasure troves large quantities of duplicates far in excess of their requirements and hence offer some for sale to the public. But from what I could gather, a huge amount of old coins in gold and silver never reach either a museum or a collector, but is destroyed in melting pots, or is used for ornamental purposes in one way or another.

What a wasteful treatment may likely be in store, for even an unusually fine lot may be judged from the account given to the writer by an enthusiastic Indian numismatist. Here is the story.

A group of children playing on the outskirts of a village in one of the numerous Native States happened to unearth a vessel containing a very large number of small shiny metal discs bearing a variety of odd ornamental designs. The kids brought the find to their parents, who quickly ascertained that the little discs were made of gold. The news about the precious treasure soon trickled out and reached the state authorities. Part of the find already must have been melted down by the time the

state police got hold of it and brought it to the ruling prince of state.

The Maharaja was elated to get such a quantity of gold already shaped into pretty roundels that yield themselves easily for ornamental purposes. A bright idea struck him to use the discs as buttons for ceremonial uniforms of his courtiers. Fortunately the school principal happened to see a few of the gold pieces from the hoard and was quick to realize that the small discs actually were ancient gold coins.

He immediately submitted to the Maharaja his plea to let a learned person examine the whole treasure find. The Maharaja, however, interpreted the principal's pleading as a sign of concealed envy toward those lucky attendants who were selected by him to receive a set of gold buttons. Being a benevolent ruler, the prince told the school principal that he also would be granted the distinction of wearing the gold buttons. But the lonely pleader for the preservation of the historical heirloom proved to be a genuine, though humble, "Kulturtraeger" who refused to give up his cause.

The Maharaja finally agreed to have an inspection arranged. A well-known Indian authority on ancient coins was invited to make a survey. As a result an outstandingly large and fine collection of Indian gold coins of the fourth and fifth centuries of our era, a number of them until then unknown and still remaining unique, were saved from destruction.

The fancy of using old gold and silver coins as buttons appears to have been quite in vogue among well-to-do Indians. During my visit to the capital city of the native state Jaipur at the end of 1948 I was surprised to discover that local half-rupee silver coins of the nineteenth century were quite scarce, whereas rupee and quarter rupee pieces were easy to get. In answer to my query about the cause of such scarcity I was told that the size of the half-rupee coins made them very suitable for conversion into buttons.

Among the Moslems of India there existed the habit of wearing gold and silver coins with the Kalima, Muhammadan profession of faith, and the names of the four orthodox "khalifas"

displayed thereon as auspicious talismans. At one time the demand for such charms must have been large enough to cause production of forgeries of some series of Muhammadan coins. I personally have seen a few such imitations of the square-type rupees of emperor Akbar the Great.

As in other parts of the world, in India fine old gold coins also served, through the jeweler's art, to enhance the natural beauty of the fair sex, and the loss to numismatic research and to collectors, on this account, too, must have been very extensive.

As we all know, coin collecting has many facets and angles to suit a wide range of tastes and inclinations. Therein lies a great deal of its peculiar attraction.

The astoundingly rich numismatic heritage of India in its endless variety is more than likely to have something to suit the particular interest of almost any collector. Those who mostly appreciate the artistic qualities of coins will not fail to be impressed by the original beauty and imaginative variety of the gold Gupta series produced during the reigns of Samudragupta, Chandragupta II and Kumargupta I (A.D. 330-455), or by the elegance of Persian legends on finely ornamented backgrounds of the best gold and silver series of the Great Mughals: Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan (A.D. 1556-1658). Those specializing in Greek coins may care to study the traces of Greek influence on the numerous coinages of the Indian Northwest subsequent to Alexander's campaign; this influence showed its vitality and left its im-

print, though in a greatly degenerated form, on the coinage of the Indo-Scythian and Indo-Parthian kings, and even down to the great rulers of the Kushana group.

The Muhammadan series from the first Sultans of Delhi up to the end of the long reign of the last Great Mughal Aurangzeb, covering together upward of five centuries (A.D. 1193-1707), faithfully reflect, by their dated coins bearing the names of the mint towns, the expansion and contraction of the various kingdoms. Here the numismatic side gets closely interwoven with the purely historical interest in the study of medieval India.

The list of upward of 60 Native States represented by their coinages in the fourth volume of the **Indian Museum Catalogue**, Calcutta (and I understand this list is not exhaustive), is a further proof of the vastness of the field of Indian numismatics even in modern times.

Besides the above-mentioned groups, there are numerous others deserving attention. A very useful concise survey of all the principal series of Indian coins from earliest times to the end of the eighteenth century is given by the late C. J. Brown in his well illustrated book, **The Coins of India** (1922).

* * *

Diameters of coins illustrated increased by about 50 per cent. At left, copper (elephant) of Satavahana (N.W. India), 500-300 B.C. Second from left, Travancore chuckram, one of world's smallest silver coins. At right, two copper "dumps," one portraying Brahma bull.

Foreign Coins Struck at U. S. Mints

By ROBERT OBOJSKI, Bowling Green, Ky.

Coins of other countries produced at the United States mints have been attracting the attention of numismatists everywhere in recent years. During the past 90 years nearly seven billion coins for 37 countries have been struck at Philadelphia, San Francisco

and Denver mints.

The collector who specializes in these interesting coins has a wide field in which to range for there are no less than 800 varieties available, by date and type, and in all metals in-

cluding copper, brass, steel, zinc, nickel, silver and gold.

The U.S. Mint Director was authorized to execute coinage for foreign countries according to an Act of Congress, dated Jan. 29, 1874. The Act reads in part: "Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That it shall be lawful for coinage to be executed at the mints of the United States, for any foreign countries applying for the same, according to the legally prescribed standards and devices of such country, under such regulations as the Secretary of Treasury may prescribe; and the charge for the same shall be equal to the expense thereof, including labor, materials, and use of machinery, to be fixed by the Director of the Mint, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury: Provided, That the manufacture of such coin shall not interfere with the required coinage of the United States."

Countries requesting this service from the United States usually fall into two major categories: (1) those which are too small to operate their own mints profitably, and (2) those which are at war and temporarily forced to suspend all coin-striking operations.

Following is a complete list of those nations who at some time or other have had their coins produced in the United States: Argentina, Australia, Belgian Congo, Belgium, Bolivia, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Curacao, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Fiji Islands, France, French Indochina, Greenland, Guatemala, Haiti, Hawaii, Honduras, Korea, Liberia, Mexico, Netherlands, Netherlands East Indies, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Philippine Islands, Poland, Salvador, Saudi Arabia, Siam, Surinam, Syria and Venezuela.

France and Belgium are two countries which transferred large portions of their minting operations to the United States during World War II. The Belgian two-franc piece of 1944 was struck on the U. S. zinc-coated steel planchet manufactured the year before. The French two-franc brass piece of 1944 was produced at Philadelphia on the U.S. cent planchet of that year.

Belgian and French colonies, e.g., Belgian Congo and French Indochina also had many millions of their coins struck at U.S. mints during World War II.

More than 1.2 billion coins were minted for the Philippines at Philadelphia, San Francisco and Denver, mostly between 1903 and 1920. In the latter year, the mint at Manila began full-scale operations.

At least a half-billion coins were produced in this country for Cuba from the time of the liberation from Spain in 1898 until the Castro takeover in 1959. During this long period Cuba's monetary system was keyed to that of the United States, with one centavo equaling a cent, and the peso equaling a dollar. Perhaps the prize Cuban set of this era is the six-value gold series struck at the Philadelphia Mint in 1915-16, and ranging in denomination from one to 20 pesos. Catalog value for the 12 dates and varieties is currently more than \$500 and rising.

Today Cuban coins are being manufactured behind the Iron Curtain, most of them probably being struck at the East German mint in East Berlin.

More than a dozen foreign countries have the bulk of their coins struck in the United States today, mostly Latin American nations, including Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru and Salvador.

Since the San Francisco mint shut down moneying operations in 1955, after a century of active service (it is now used only as an assay office), the two remaining mints at Philadelphia and Denver have been under heavy pressure because domestic demands for coinage have reached all-time highs.

Plans, however, are being carried out to at least double the capacity of the Philadelphia facility. When expansion is completed it will be possible for the United States to take care of its own increasing needs, as well as those of any nation which requires her coin-striking services.

United States made coins have always ranked high in beauty and in quality of workmanship.

(Reprint from THE CHRISTIAN SCIENCE MONITOR, Sept. 9, 1964)

Czechoslovakia's Coins

By MILTON C. STRAUCH, Daly City

The roots of the Czechoslovakian Republic go back to the days of the medieval kingdoms of Bohemia and Moravia. The Bohemians, who played such a significant role during the 14th to 17th centuries, were defeated by the Habsburgs in 1620 at the Battle of White Mountain.

The Thirty Years' War originated within Bohemia in 1618, when she was in the midst of a national and religious revival. The election of a Protestant count instead of Ferdinand of Austria to the Bohemian throne precipitated a war involving the member states of the Holy Roman Empire—ultimately a war involving almost all of Continental Europe. Bohemia's part in the Thirty Years' War ended in 1620, when she lost her independence and thereafter was treated as a conquered nation. The Slovaks had been so treated by the Magyars since 907 A.D. when they lost the Battle of Bratislava.

For almost 300 years Bohemia and Moravia were mere provinces in the Habsburg Empire. Threatened with Germanization in the last half of the 18th century, the Czechs were awakened nationally by the reforms of Maria Theresa and Joseph II. They began an organized struggle for liberation from Austrian hegemony during World War I, preferring to remain within a Habsburg federation if possible, or alternately as an independent nation.

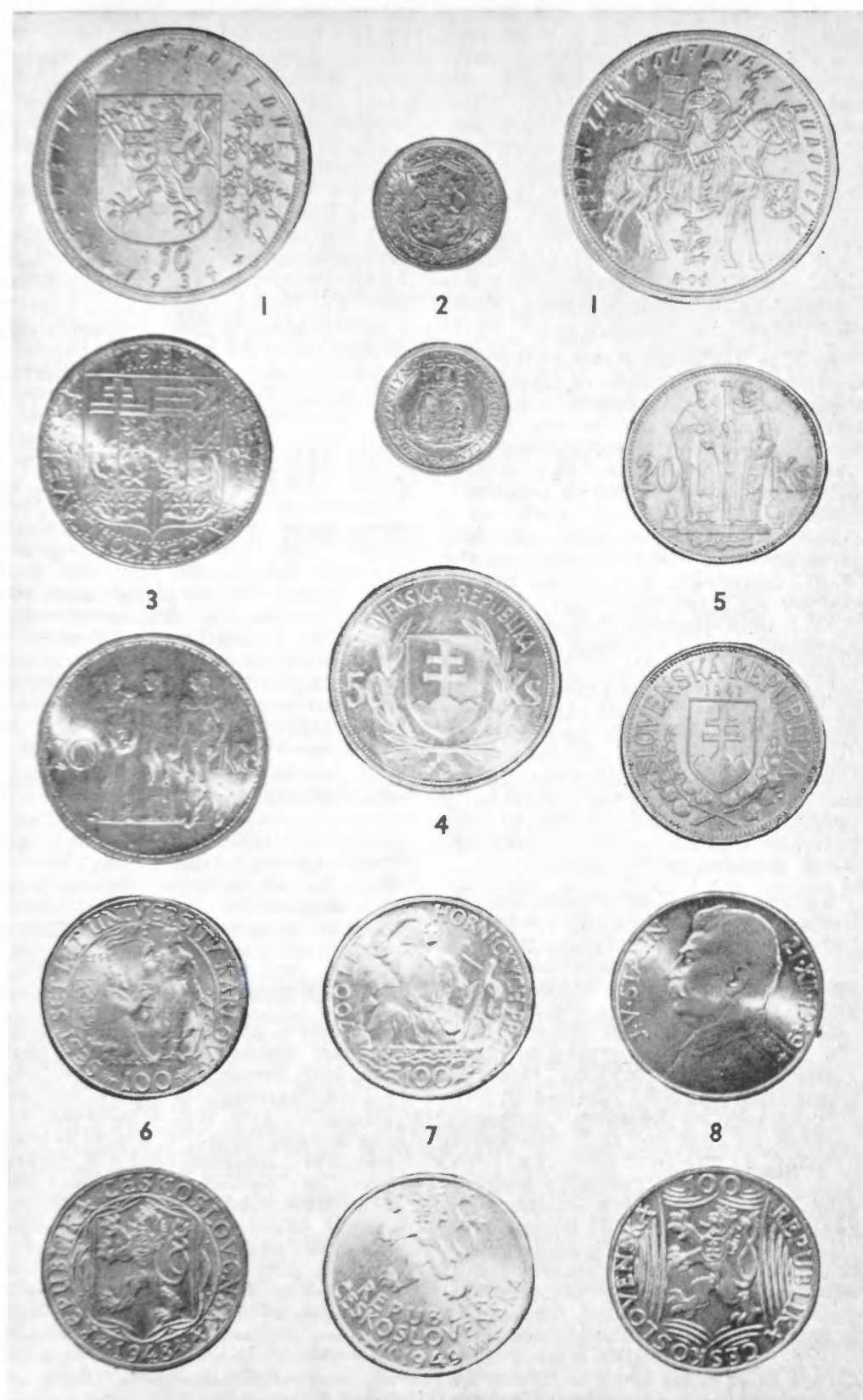
The Republic of Czechoslovakia was proclaimed October 28, 1918, (their independence day) after the bloodless revolution in Prague. Three days later the Slovaks indicated their adherence to the new state. Czechoslovakia's boundaries were fixed definitely by the peace treaties. The old historic frontier of Bohemia-Moravia and the ethnic boundaries in Slovakia made up the new state. Czechoslovakia's monetary system was not prepared for coinage, so as a result coins of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire were used until the new government could mint money. After three years these foreign coins were withdrawn from circulation as the

new coinage of the Republic came into being.

The new nation issued several commemorative gold and silver coins. The 1 and 2 ducats of 1923 were issued to honor the fifth anniversary of the Republic (obverse, lion on shield; reverse, St. Wenzeslaus bust). Later, the 5 and 10 ducats were added to complete the gold series (reverse, St. Wenzeslaus on horse). Wenzeslaus, patron of Bohemia about 911-929, later was declared a Christian Saint. The 10 koruna 1928 was issued for the 10th anniversary of the Republic (obverse, bust of Thomas Garrigue Masaryk, founder and first president of Czechoslovakia). The 20 koruna 1937 (bust of Masaryk) commemorates the death of ex-President Thomas G. Masaryk, 1850-1937.

On Sept. 12, 1938, Adolph Hitler demanded self-determination for the Sudetan Germans. The British prime minister negotiated with Hitler and as a result of the conference of Munich on Oct. 1, 1938, Nazi troops occupied parts of Bohemia. Hungary demanded rectification along the borders of Slovakia and Ruthenia and Poland took over Teschen. On March 15, 1939, prostrate Bohemia-Moravia agreed under pressure to become German protectorates. Coins of but one type were issued under this occupation. These were minor coins similar to the previous issue except for the name Bohemia-Moravia.

A day later the Republic of Slovakia, created by the Germans, was proclaimed. Having the blessings of Hitler, it was a republic in name only. Monsignor Joseph Tiso was the first and only president. This state lasted only for the duration of the war (1939-45). Several coins were issued to commemorate past and present events. The 50 koruna 1944 was issued for the fifth year of the republic, and was the only crown struck during this secession period (Monsignor Tiso's bust is shown on obverse). The 20 koruna 1939 shows Tiso's bust. The 20 koruna 1941 (ob-



verse shows Saints Cyril and Methodius, Greek-Macedonian missionaries from the Byzantine court, who arrived in Bohemia about 836, on request of the Moravian prince because of the increased demand for the Slavic language. These men were both Holy Apostles and founders of the Slavic literature). The 10 koruna 1944 shows Přibena. The only minor coin of importance is the 5 koruna 1939 with portrait of Father Hlinka, chief advocate of Slovakian autonomy. All coins have the arms shown on reverse.

In May 1945, after the collapse of Germany, the Republic of Czechoslovakia was re-established, with the same boundaries as before except that Ruthenia was incorporated into the Soviet Union. The newly constituted nation was placed in a difficult position after the war (1945) as a result of the deterioration of relations between Soviet Russia and the West, especially the United States. Her security depended upon alliance with Russia (against Germany); her economic welfare depended upon trade with the West. Because of industrial development and the need for markets, Czechoslovakia was forced into the orbit of Soviet Russia. The 50 koruna 1947 (obverse female standing) commemorated the Slovak insurrection against the Germans in 1944. This was the only silver coin post-war Czechoslovakia minted under a democratic regime.

Communists led by Prime Minister Klement Gottwald seized control of the government in February 1948. By October all Czechoslovakia once again was living under a police state. Under the Communists the following coins were issued: 50 koruna 1948, (for the third anniversary of liberation); 100 koruna 1948 (for the 600th anniversary of Charles University, founded by Emperor Charles IV in 1348 at Prague. It is the oldest Central European University); 100 koruna 1948 (for the 30th anniversary of freedom from Austro-Hungarian domination); 100 koruna 1949 (issued for the 700th anniversary of the granting of mining privileges at Jihlava, town midway between Vienna and Prague, noted for mining laws dating back to the 14th century. Silver mines in the area made Jihlava a very prosperous town until the discovery of America by Columbus.

After the Spanish conquered parts of the New World, great quantities of silver were mined and brought into Europe, forcing a gradual decline in Jihlava's importance). Czechoslovakia was the only satellite state of Russia to honor Joseph Stalin with his portrait on its coins. This was for his 70th birthday and the issues were 100 and 50 koruna, 1949. The 100 koruna 1951 (bust of President Gottwald, third president) honored his 30 years in the Communist party, 1921-51.

After May 1945 protectorate and Slovakian coins were used as legal tender as well as the new Czechoslovak coins. This was due to the shortage of coins during the early post-war period. They were gradually withdrawn from circulation as prosperity came back. The coins of the Republic were not withdrawn from circulation when the Communists took over. The new government assured the people that the coins still would be of legal monetary value. As none of the commemorative coins issued by the Communists was put in general circulation, I presume they were minted mainly for numismatists, especially Americans, so that the Czechs could obtain our much needed dollars for trade.

The money reform act of June 1953 ordered withdrawn all coins and currency in circulation, and only new coins and notes became the legal tender of the state. Since this law there no longer is a free exchange of numismatics among collectors as the law prohibits the exporting of coins from Czechoslovakia.

KEY TO PLATE

1. 10-ducat, gold, 1934, lion on shield; rev., Saint Wenzeslaus on horse. 2. 1-ducat, gold, 1923, lion on shield; rev., half figure of Saint Wenzeslaus facing. 3. 20-koruna, silver, 1933, arms of Czechoslovakia; rev., three standing figures. 4. Rev. of 50-koruna silver, 1944, Slovakia; obv., not pictured, shows Tiso's portrait. 5. 20-koruna, silver, 1941, Saints Cyril and Methodius; rev., arms of Slovakia. 6. 100-koruna, silver, 1948, 600th anniversary of Charles University; rev., arms of Czechoslovakia. 7. 100-koruna, silver, 1949, 700th anniversary of the granting of mining privileges of Jihlava; rev., arms of Czechoslovakia. 8. 100-koruna, silver, 1949, Stalin's 70th birthday portrait; rev., arms of Czechoslovakia. Coins illustrated $\frac{3}{4}$ actual size.



THE ARABIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN

By KEN HEDGES, Spring Valley

The area known as Arabia—extending from the southern border of Turkey to the colony of Aden on the southern tip of the Arabian Peninsula—usually is thought of as a vast desert, with an occasional oasis and perhaps a genie with a magic carpet. Actually, the concept of "Arabia Deserta", as the ancients called it, is somewhat unfair, for within the boundaries of Arabia lie two of the world's most fertile areas—the fertile crescent we call the Cradle of Civilization, between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in modern Iraq; and the fertile highlands of the southwestern tip, in Yemen. The proximity of Yemen's high mountains to the monsoons of the Indian Ocean bring these highlands abundant rainfall, enabling them to support one of the densest populations on the peninsula. Here in the Yemeni highlands is grown the coffee still classed among the best—Mocha; named after the once-great port through which it entered the world's markets.

Arabia presents to the numismatist a picture of a land where the concept of a monetary unit with a fixed value relating to other monetary units was almost unknown until recent times. For centuries Arab traders have been using silver and gold as bullion, and coins circulate as such no matter what is stamped on their

faces. It was under these circumstances that Arabia became the domain of the trade coin, notably the Maria Theresa thaler, and it is with this coin that the modern numismatic history of Yemen begins. The combination of the coffee trade through Mocha with the immortal Maria Theresa thaler became so important in Yemen that the thaler remains to this day as the basis of Yemen's financial system.

The Ottoman Turks entered Yemen in 1849, and occupied the capital of San'a in 1872. In their efforts to establish absolute sovereignty, the Turkish government outlawed all use of the Maria Theresa thaler. As a replacement, they introduced the Turkish 20-piastre piece, commonly known as the Mejidie dollar. But the Yemenites, because of their trust in the Maria Theresa thaler and their hatred for their Turkish overlords, continued to use the Maria Theresa thaler, and would accept the Mejidie dollar only in areas under direct Turkish surveillance. Finally, realizing the futility of their efforts, the Ottoman government in 1910 withdrew the ban and allowed the Maria Theresa thaler to circulate as legal tender.

The modern coinage of Yemen commences with the copper coins illegally issued by Iman Yahya bin Mohammed

Hamid al-Din about 1905 as part of a continuing popular resistance against Turkish authority. The right to issue coinage is a mark of sovereignty, especially in a land such as Yemen. As Pridmore tells us, "In a country wherein news was limited to that carried by word of mouth (the first newspaper was published in San'a in November, 1926), a coin placed into general circulation bearing the title of the Imam was, to his followers, a very effective and visible sign of non-subjugation to Turkish authority." In October, 1910, the Turkish government granted recognition to the Imam as Arab leader, and a continuous issue of coins by Imam Yahya after 1911 indicates satisfactory resolution of the coinage question.

When Yemen achieved her independence from Ottoman rule in 1918, Imam Yahya immediately re-established the Maria Theresa thaler as the sole basis of the country's finances and issued a coinage of halalas, bogaches, and fractions of the ryal in a monetary system which divided the silver ryal (Maria Theresa thaler) into forty bogaches, each bogach equal to two halalas. In 1924, Imam Yahya issued the Imadi ryal, a large silver coin equal in value and silver content to the Maria Theresa thaler. The word "Imadi" means "pillar", and its appearance on the coin implies that Yahya was "Pillar of Faith of Islam" for Yemen. All Imadi ryals are dated 1344 (1925/26), but the large number of die varieties implies re-issuance throughout the reign of Yahya.

In February of 1948, Imam Yahya was assassinated and Sayyed Abdulla bin Ahmed al Wazir declared himself king. He was defeated by the sons of Yahya, one of whom succeeded to the throne on March 14, 1948, with the title of Ahmed bin Yahya Mohammed Hamid al-Din. Imam Ahmed (pronounced "Ach-med") immediately initiated a complete coinage, including bronze and aluminum halalas and bogaches, silver fractions of the ryal, and the Ahmedi ryal, which also was equivalent to the Maria Theresa thaler; in fact, some later issues were overstruck on thalers, and details of the original design often appear beneath the Arabic inscriptions. This also is true of some half Ahmedis

struck on planchets punched from Maria Theresa thalers, and a similar process is said to have been employed for the five-sided one-eighth Ahmedi. "Ahmedi" is the adjectival form of the Imam's name, so the coin is simply "Ahmed's ryal". Specimens of the quarter Ahmedi, half Ahmedi, and Ahmedi ryal are known in gold.

During the entire span of the post-Ottoman Kingdom (1918-1962), Yemen turned to the outside world only three times for her coinage. Sometime during the reign of Imam Yahya, a half halala in nickel struck by an unknown European mint (possibly the Italian mint) appeared; nothing more is known about this coin. In 1955 and 1956, halala and bogach coins were struck on aluminum planchets imported from West Germany; these coins are of the same types as the corresponding denominations in bronze. Also in 1956, an issue of aluminum halalas and bogaches appeared which differed markedly from all previous Yemeni coins. Owing to the primitive state of the equipment in the San'a mint, all coinage of the kingdom is quite crude in fabrication, with numerous die varieties and variations in weight. The 1956 issue of aluminum coins was struck by the Societe Orientale des Metaux Precieux in Beirut, Lebanon, and the coins reflect the excellence of a modern mint. The coins are perfectly round, excellent in workmanship, and for the first time bear a design—the Yemeni coat of arms, which shows a mocha coffee tree above the 2700-year-old Marib Dam, Yemen's greatest antiquity.

Even with outside help, the San'a mint has not been able to completely satisfy the demands for a subsidiary coinage, and other coinage, notably rupees of India and East Africa, have been pressed into service. Neither is the Maria Theresa thaler the only crown in circulation. Through the years, coins have entered Yemen from Eritrea and Ethiopia across the Red Sea, from neighboring Saudi Arabia, and—in the form of rupees and British trade dollars—from Aden to the south. Even the Ahmedi ryal served more as a presentation piece than a circulating medium and the Maria Theresa thaler remains the prevalent coin.

Some of the coins entering Yemen have been counterstamped at the

San'a mint with the dies of the pentagonal 1/16 Ahmedi dated 1371 (1952). Whether this indicates official sanction of their circulation or represents some other purpose is not known. Specimens of the Maria Theresa thaler and the 1918 Eritrean tallero are found with this counterstamp. Usually both obverse and reverse impressions of the 1/16 Ahmedi appear on the corresponding sides of the larger coins, but a specimen of an obverse-only counterstamp on a Maria Theresa thaler is known.



In September of 1962, Imam Yahya died and was succeeded by Imam Mohammed al-Badr, who almost immediately was deposed by republican forces and his government replaced by an Egyptian-supported Arabic Republic of Yemen under President Abdullah Sallal. The royalist forces under Imam al-Badr fled to the northern hills, from which they have since waged a nasty little war with the Arab Republic, drawing their support from neighboring Saudi Arabia. A

United Nations peace team has been at work in Yemen, but has been remarkably unsuccessful, especially in trying to get Egypt and Saudi Arabia to withdraw support from the warring forces. Just recently, Egypt and Saudi Arabia surprisingly pledged cooperation on this matter, a side effect of their joint efforts with other Arab countries to drive Israel from the Middle East. But the fighting in Yemen continues.

Soon after formation of the Arabic Republic of Yemen, persistent reports from the country indicated a coinage had been issued, but details were far from plentiful. In *Coin World* for Feb. 1, 1963, a small article noted that a new crown-size coin had been issued in Yemen on Dec. 9, 1962, to replace the Maria Theresa thaler. The new coin was to be called the bakcha, which at first appears to be merely another variant of "bogach", a name which has suffered through so many attempts at transliteration from the Arabic that it now has dozens of different spellings, but this interpretation does not comply with the announced value of the new coin. Inquiries to Numorum Trust of Vaduz, Liechtenstein, revealed that the bakcha was mentioned on Dec. 30, 1962, in an interview with Yemeni President Sallal, but further inquiries to several sources have failed to reveal any later information on the bakcha.

Meanwhile, a series of coins—but no crowns—has made its appearance. A second item in *Coin World* for July 12, 1963, stated that the Cairo mint was minting 28,000,000 coins for Yemen as part of an "urgent loan" to the new republic. It further noted that the new coins would be called rials, and would be the first coins issued by the Yemen Republic.

But the series of coins which had appeared on the numismatic scene obviously were not products of the Cairo mint. First of all, they bore the words "Struck at San'a", but this does not exclude the possibility of foreign mintage, since the coins struck in Beirut in 1956 bore the same legend. But the new coins also were quite crude in workmanship, exhibiting manufacturing imperfections which served as unmistakable brands of the San'a mint.

The coins so far known of the San'a mint series comprise six denomina-

tions and nine types. The first is a copper halala bearing as a central device a star between two lines, apparently a representation of the flag of the Arabic Republic of Yemen. This obverse type is known with two reverses, one with the value "half bogach" written out in Arabic, and one with the Arabic numerals "½". The third coin is a copper halala showing a hand holding a torch; this type is fairly common. The bogach of this series has a similar design of the hand holding a torch, and is known in copper and brass. The remaining four coins are silver—in denominations of 1/20, 1/10, 1/5 and 1/4 ryal—and picture a crude representation of the Yemeni coat of arms as described for the Beirut issues of 1956. All coins bear the inscriptions "No God but God and Mohammed is the Prophet of God" and "Arabic Republic of Yemen", with the date 1382 (1963) on both sides.

Soon more coins were issued in Yemen. First details about the newest coinage reached this writer in a letter dated Aug. 5, 1963, from Tim Browder of Darien, Conn. Mr. Browder sent a rubbings of a new coin he had just received—a beautiful, well-struck crown with the central design of a coffee branch, and the date 1382-1963. This apparently was the ryal struck by the Cairo mint, and proved to be only the forerunner of a complete series of Yemeni coins. At about the same time, an item in *Coin World* stated that the San'a radio reports revealed that the new coins of the republic carried the seal of the repub-

lican regime, a coffee tree representing Yemen's mocha coffee. Unfortunately, it did not state which series of coins—San'a or Cairo—was under discussion. The silver coins from San'a carried the old coat of arms, and it may well be that this has been adopted as the republican emblem as well. Or it may be that the coffee branch so beautifully portrayed on the Cairo coins has been adopted as an official seal.

The coins struck in Cairo include denominations of one-half and one bogach in aluminum-bronze, and values of 5, 10 and 20 bogaches and one ryal in silver. All coins show the value in the center of the obverse with the inscription "Arabic Republic of Yemen" above and an ornamental border below. On the reverse is the central coffee branch surrounded by an ornamental border with the dates 1382-1963 below in Arabic numerals. The edges of the silver coins are reeded.

Although of excellent workmanship, large diameter, and apparently good silver, the new ryals from the Cairo mint are thinner and consequently of less weight and silver content than the Maria Theresa thaler or ryals of the kingdom. Therefore, they are unpopular among the Yemeni people, and are accepted only at approximately three-fourths of a Maria Theresa thaler. There has been talk of complete abolishment of the thaler in favor of the new ryal, and this has provided al-Badr's royalists with a sharp propaganda dagger, for any attempt at a one-for-one ex-



change will hardly be equitable to the people. The government may well pay heed to the experience of the Ottoman Turks, for if the Yemenites do not want to use the new coins, they most certainly will not use them.

There even has been talk of issuing paper money, but it evidently was made known that the Yemeni scheme of values would not allow this, although paper money is used in the cities, where American dollars and British and Egyptian pound notes are in evidence. The current goal is popular acceptance of the new ryals, but the Egyptian workers in Yemen hardly endorse the integrity of the new coins—they do their shopping with British pound notes. Recent reports indicate that a Yemeni paper currency now is in circulation.

This is the currency picture in today's Yemen, a country until recently closed to the outside world, and so backward it has been said to be rushing headlong into the 13th century. But this strange little country offers a varied and extremely interesting, albeit somewhat confused, numismatic history, a history worthy of study by any serious advocate of numismatics.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Grateful acknowledgment must be

made to Mr. Tim J. Browder for his assistance in providing valuable information, photographs and coins to be photographed; to Numorum Trust Reg. of Vaduz, Liechtenstein, for their efforts to locate information on the elusive bakcha; to Mr. William R. Higgins, whose counterstamped Eritrean tallero was loaned for photographing; and to Mr. Ernst Kraus and Mr. Simeon Wilson for their efforts to obtain photographs which, due to space limitations, could not be used.

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THE COINS OF LUNDY ISLAND

By GWENDOLYN SENTIS, Santa Barbara

Some time ago when we first began to collect we came across two curious little copper coins — the **Coins of Lundy Island**. They have such an interesting history behind them we would like to pass some of it along to you.

It is believed that Edward II (1307-27) had a few coins minted on Lundy, the extremely rare pieces known as Lundy guineas.

There are numerous stories about the Turkish (1625), Spanish (1633), French and Dutch pirates who landed there, and it was always believed to be the burying place for vast amounts of treasure.

In 1645 during the English Civil War of 1642-8, the mint at the City of Bristol was lost to the partisans of Charles I when that city surrendered, and Lundy coinage was issued. However, it was stopped the following year and we can find no trace of additional coinage until in the early 1900s. There is, though, a silver bank token of George III, dated 1814, with a countermark in an oval indent on the reverse of the head and shoulders of a puffin bird, and some feel this might have circulated on the island.

In 1835 the island became known as the Kingdom of Heaven when a Reverend William Heaven bought it,



and when he died in 1916, it had become very close to living up to its name. Of the 100 or so islanders, it is reported that there were no poor, no police, no taxes, licenses or fees to be paid.

Ownership of the island changed hands in 1916 and again in 1925 when Martin Coles Harman bought it for £16,000. Harman was a wealthy London financier, and when in 1928 the British Numismatic Society invited him to one of its meetings, he got the idea of issuing a currency of his own from the program which consisted of a discussion of the Charles I coinage issued from the island. After all, Harman was the owner and Lord of the island, which was not under direct British rule, even if most of his inhabitants were puffins and rabbits. (Puffin is the English name for a sea bird known on parts of the English coast as the Bottlenose, Coulterneb Pope and Sea Parrot.)

In 1929 he contacted the Birmingham mint, was quoted a price and agreed upon it. He sent an enlarged photograph of his head for the obverse of the coins, and photographs of the local bird to be used for the reverse device. The reverse caused the engravers, John Pinches, Ltd., of London, some trouble, but they were finally able to satisfy Harman and ultimately 50,000 coins were struck in bronze of the same alloy used in the Royal coinage.

There were two denominations: a puffin, which depicted the entire bird on the reverse, and a half puffin which was smaller and showed only the top portion of the bird. The legend reads on the obverse: MARTIN COLES HARMAN, with the date 1929 below; and on the reverse LUNDY HALF PUFFIN or LUNDY ONE PUFFIN, as the case may be. The edges were lettered with the motto: LUNDY LIGHTS AND LEADS, which is probably an example of Mr. Harman's

noble intentions and his desire to make his little island kingdom a good example for larger states. Further, Lundy has two ship navigation beacons at the entrance to the Bristol Channel, so literally it does "light and lead."

The coins were of the same weight as the English penny and half penny, but they had no exchange value in terms of other currencies when after a very brief period their circulation was halted. The reason for the withdrawal was that the English government thought poorly of Harman's illegal coinage, and although he contended that Lundy was a self-governing dominion and outside of the jurisdiction of English courts and law, he was charged with conspiracy to defraud under the Coinage Act of 1870, and lost his case. The coinage was never destroyed, and they became popular souvenirs for the tourists who flocked to the island after the case received widespread publicity.

Although it does not particularly pertain to this article, it might be of interest to note that in 1934 Harman was sentenced to eighteen months imprisonment when after a sixteen-day trial at Old Bailey, the jury found him guilty of having misapplied funds of the Chosen Corporation, of which he was a director. It was charged that he had used Chosen Corporation money on behalf of two other companies in which he was financially interested.

Harman died in 1955, and today his son Albion reigns in his stead. The island has its own fleet and exports china, mats and hand-woven cloth to the mainland, and its coins have become collectors' items worth many times over their original penny and half penny value.

(Reprint from Santa Barbara Coin Club's "NUMISMA," volume V, no. 1, January, 1965.)

ICELAND

By MRS. RETA L. HARTSON, El Sobrante

Iceland, the 53rd member of the United Nations, is a small island of an area covering 39,758 square miles. It is located in the North Atlantic, close to the Arctic Circle, about 800 miles northwest of the British Isles. Its population is approximately 190,000. The temperature ranges from about 34 degrees in January to close to 60 degrees in July. The capital is Reykjavik, which translated means "Smoking Harbor" This perhaps because of the many volcanoes.

Fifteen percent of the surface of Iceland is covered by snowfields and glaciers. In spite of this there are innumerable volcanoes, craters and thermal springs.

An outstanding fact about Iceland is that it is the hot springs which furnish the heat for homes and factories. The springs also furnish heat for hothouses where are grown grapes, bananas, oranges and many kinds of vegetables and flowers. So much is grown this way that large quantities of foodstuffs are exported to the outside world.

Iceland was first discovered around the end of the 8th century by Celtic Monks, and rediscovered by Norse explorers in 850. Like the early settlers of the United States, the people who went to make their homes in Iceland went with one thought—freedom. Icelandic history records that it was not people of destitution who first settled there, but people of means. They wanted freedom of worship and freedom of speech, and history proves they paid a high price for this freedom.

Thirty percent of the population is engaged in agriculture. Farms sell not according to acreage but to the quality of the soil and what it will grow. The better the soil, the higher the price. Less than one percent of the land area is under cultivation.

Of the population, sixteen percent is employed in the fishing industry, and twenty-one percent as sea captains, pilots, musicians, singers, actors, teachers, doctors and educators.

College education is available to

any who desire it, with medicine, theology, philosophy and law being stressed more than other branches of learning. Education is compulsory from the ages of seven through fifteen. In the out-of-the way areas, busses take teachers to the children so they may have the education required under the law.

Under the rule of the Norwegian Monarch, Iceland was brought under the Danish rule when Olaf 2nd, King of Denmark, ascended the Norwegian throne in 1380. Norway had brought Iceland under its rule in the 13th century, and it remained under Norwegian rule until Olaf 2nd ascended the throne.

Iceland was a sovereign state united with Denmark until May 1941 when the Althing or Parliament voted to cancel the union, declared Iceland independent, and in June 1944 it was proclaimed a republic. It was, and is, governed by the Althing or Parliament. This Parliament is the oldest parliamentary assembly in the world, having been founded in 930.

Another exceptionally unusual thing about this country is that there are no military men. It has no army, although the United States has a base there.

The Icelander's past history is chaotic. The eruption of volcanoes, the diseases of several types which hit its cattle and its people were devastating. The settlers of Iceland being seekers of freedom refused to give up, even when a ten-year period showed a population loss of 30,000. Like our early ancestors they refused to acknowledge defeat.

The coins of Iceland were first private issues. Call them tokens, if you will, but they were the coinage of that era. They were issued by merchants for bread or foodstuffs. The value, and the merchant's name, were on them and they date back to the mid 1800s. The values of 16 skilling and 4 skilling were of brass or bronze. A skilling has a value below one cent. These tokens were issued by C. F. Siemsen, merchant, and O. S. Andre-

sen, baker. They were also issued by A. Frederiksen and Daniel Bernhoft, bakers. Bernhoft's were issued in 1903 and these tokens had fancier designs than the earlier tokens. So went the monetary system until 1922 when the coinage became government issues of the 25 aurar in nickel composition.

The lesser coins from 1922-46 show the Danish influence. They depict the Royal Crown over a large C, and within the C circle is a Roman numeral X, which denotes King Christian the 10th, of Denmark.

The earlier and larger pieces bear the escutcheon or shield, within which is centered the Latin cross. Above the shield is the Royal Crown, which separates the date, with one-half being to the left and one-half to the right of the crown. The other side bears the value, and above the value the word "Island". Below the value is the word Eyrir or Aurar or perhaps Krona or Kronur.



The coins of 1942 were of zinc instead of bronze or copper-nickel. These zinc coins were struck in London during World War II, as were the other coins of that time.

Through 1926 the coinage carried two sets of initials. Just in front of the I in Island there is a small heart, below which are the initials "H.C.N.", which stand for Hans Christian Nielsen, mintmaster, Copenhagen. Under the capital "C" are the initials "G. J.", for Gunnar Jansen, engraver.

During World War II, Icelandic coins were minted in England. These lack the mint marks and designer's initials found in the original Copenhagen mintings.

In 1946 the ornaments that were on opposite sides of the value in figures were changed from ornaments

to leaves; then changed again when the Icelandic coat of arms was put on the coins. This is the escutcheon surrounded by a bull to the left, a giant to the right; and at the top two vulture heads, with a backing of open wings pointed heavenward. The heads of the vultures turn in opposite directions. The Latin cross is at the center of the escutcheon.

At the present day rate of exchange, it takes 40 kronur to equal one U.S. dollar, and one hundred aurar to equal one kronur.

For the meaning of the Icelandic coat of arms, I am indebted to the Icelandic Consul, S. Thorlaksson. I now relate that meaning to you.

"The shield bearers are the old guardian spirits of the land mentioned in Snorri Sturluson's "Heimskringla" (Lives of the Kings). The bull is for health and strength; a dragon to scare away evil spirits from the land; a vulture to clear the land of undesirable debris; and a giant, by his strength and size, to ward off all that is undesirable.

"By Presidential Order of 17 June 1944, it was decreed that the Icelandic coat of arms should be a shield with the Icelandic flag drawn on it, and that the white cross on the national flag should be replaced by a silvery one on the shield. The shield rests on a slab of basalt. At the millennial festival in 1930 each town and district (sysla) had its separate coat of arms, some patterned on old seals, others designed for the occasion."

The blue color has from olden times been considered the national color of Iceland.

I would like to draw your attention to the first commemorative issues—the 2, 5 and 10 kronur of 1930. These silently speak for the people of Iceland and their love of liberty, peace and justice. These commemorative coins celebrate the 1000th anniversary of the Althing. They were considered medals and were minted in Germany.

The second commemorative is the Jon Sigurdsson, a 500 kronur gold coin, issued in 1961, and which pays tribute to him who did so much to win freedom for Iceland, to a better way of life for its people—and a fine tribute to an outstanding man who worked tirelessly for the land he loved.

SEA SALVAGED SILVER

By GUY A. RAILSBACK, LAFAYETTE, CSNA 1824



INTRODUCTION

The morning of July 31, 1715, caught in a hurricane, a Spanish Treasure Fleet was sunk off the Florida coast. A considerable amount of the treasure carried by that fleet was destined to remain submerged for approximately 250 years.

This is a study of cobs salvaged (circa de 1965) from those wrecks. It is restricted to 4 and 8 real silver pieces from the colonial mint of Mexico during the reign of Philip V, who in 1700 became the first of the Spanish Bourbon kings. The cardinal purpose of these observations is to examine the design of these cobs minted 1700 to 1715. We especially want to examine the Spanish Shield and the designs of the individual Coat of Arms that together comprise the shield, and to identify the points of the design and/or its variations that will aid in identifying or attributing these cobs as to time and/or place of minting.

COBS

The word "cob" is derived from the Spanish term "Cabo de Barra" (end of the bar). Planchets were hand cut from the end of the bar of silver, and were then hand struck. Overweight coins were then brought to proper weight by slicing off excess silver. Overstrikes were common and errors occurred.

OBVERSE AND REVERSE

It is because of the crude hand method used in minting that no two genuine cobs are alike and no single cob will illustrate the complete design. Although it is not to be illustrated with an individual coin, let us first consider the full design used on the obverse and on the reverse.

OBVERSE

The obverse (figure 1) has the crowned arms (shield) of Spain. The denomination (Arabic) is to the right of the shield. To the left, the mint (Mo-o is above M) is directly above the assayer's initial (J). The margin legend is between two beaded circles. It reads (clockwise from two o'clock) PHILIPPVS. V. DEI. G. date (Philip V, by grace of God), with the last digit of the date at about 10:30 o'clock.

REVERSE

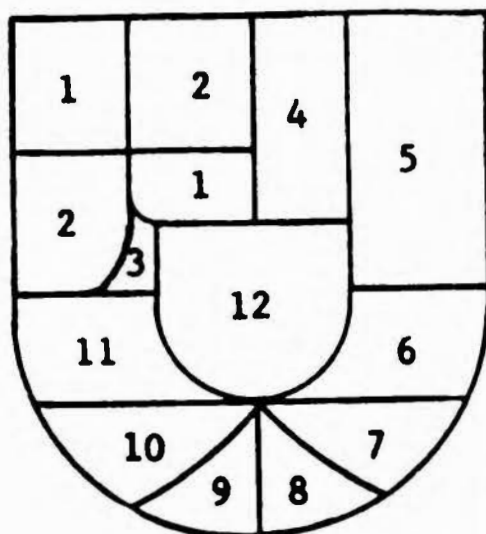
The reverse (figure 3) has the Cross of Jerusalem in tressure (double orle)

in the cantons (corners) of which are castles and lions. The marginal inscription is between two beaded circles. It reads (clockwise from twelve o'clock) HISPANIARVM. ET. IND. IARVM. REX (Spain - Indies - king).

REIGN OF PHILIP V

Philip V, the first Spanish Bourbon king reigned twice: first reign was 1700 to Jan. 10, 1724, and the second reign was from Aug. 31, 1724 to July 9, 1746. Louis I, his son, reigned in the interim period of 1724. (Louis I coinage is extremely rare).

SPANISH SHIELD



SPANISH BOURBON SHIELD

1. Castile—upper and lower castles.
2. Leon—upper and lower lions.
3. Granada—pomegranate.
4. Aragon—pales—vertical lines—number varies.
5. Naples-Sicily—chevrons or saltires—palets divide diagonal lines, eagles to sides of center.
6. Burgundy—fleurs-de-lis. The number varies.
7. Barbant—lion.
8. Thyrol—eagle.
9. Flanders—lion.
10. Low Countries—bendlets—diagonal lines.
11. Austria—fesse—center bar.
12. Escutcheon of Bourbons—three fleurs-de-lis.

There are three types of the Spanish shield used by Philip V, the first of the Bourbon kings of Spain. Above is a diagram of the first type used. It illustrates the location of the vari-

ous coats of arms of the Spanish provinces and possessions, and the arms of the Bourbon family, that together comprise the full shield of Spain.

TYPES OF THE SPANISH SHIELD

Note here that we are using the word "types" to designate the three variations in the actual component Coats of Arms than comprise the shield with no consideration to the variation of the design of the individual arms.

Type 1 (figure 4) — has the arms of Granada and two castles in the arms of Castile.

Type 2 (figure 5) — does not contain the arms of Granada, but still shows two castles in the arms of Castile.

Type 3 (figure 6) — has no arms of Granada and has only one castle in the arms of Castile.

Ref.—McNickle: Type 1 design was used in the beginning of the first Philip V reign. Type 3 was first used about 1715. He does not mention Type 2, which is common. Type 2 is apparently an intermediate design.

Variations in Individual Arms

We will illustrate here only those variations which we have observed in the designs of the individual arms that seem to be helpful in identifying and attributing the shield types. The type 3 shield shows many arms variations that are seen only on that type; this makes this type rather easy to identify. The type 2 and 3 shields can be distinguished only by determining if Granada is present.

Granada—Granada is only in type 1, but McNickle further points out that the earliest Granada (circa de 1700) had a large Granada with a full pomegranite (figure 7) and became smaller (figure 8) as time passed until the pomegranite was only an extension of the border line of the Bourbon shield (figure 9.)

Castile and Leon—The only significant thing we have observed is the presence of two castles on types 1 and 2 shields, and the presence of one castle in the type 3 shield.

Aragon—The pales (perpendicular lines) vary in number, but we can attach no significance to these variations. However, on type 3 shields the length of the pales is equal to the

depth of the upper lion (figure 12), and in types 1 and 2 the pales are equal to the depth of upper lion and lower castle (figure 11).

Naples and Sicily—Many variations occur in chevrons, saltires and number of vertical lines, but none are significant in attributing. The depth of the arms is, however, twice the length of the pales of Aragon in type 3 shields (figure 12), and much less approximately 1/3 longer, in type 1 or type 2 shields (figure 11).

Burgundy—Variations occur in the number and arrangement of the fleurs-de-lis, to which we can attach no significance; however, the upper border of Burgundy occurs either as a single line (figure 12), or as a double line with palets connecting (figure 11). We have not observed this doubling in the upper border on type 3 shield.

Barbant-Thyrol-Flanders-Low Countries—The upper border lines of the arms of these countries is a continuous straight line. The border line may join (figure 11), or may not join (figure 10) the border of the Bourbon arms. When it does not join the Bourbon arms the border between Barbant and Burgundy (figure 10) is a double line with palets connecting. We have observed this design (not joining and with palets connecting) only in type 1 and type 2 shields.

Note on figure 12 that the arms of Low Countries and Barbant do not join at the center point. When this occurs the upper borders of Flanders and Thyrol are flat instead of pointed, and the border between Low Countries and Thyrol is a straight line instead of a curved line, and likewise a straight line border, instead of curved line separates Thyrol from Barbant. These variations occur together and only on type 3 shields.

Low Countries—The bendlets (diagonal lines) occur plain (figure 11) or bordered (figure 10). We have not observed bendlets on a type 3 shield.

Austria—The fesse of Austria occurs either as a band (figure 11) or smaller rectangular block (figure 12). We have never observed the block in type 1 or type 2 shields, and it seems to always occur on type 3 shields.

Bourbon Arms—The Bourbon arms located in the center of the shield is significant. Its presence attributes the shield to the time of the Bourbon dynasty which began in 1700.

DENOMINATION

The denomination occurs either plain or with dots. We have seen dots only with, and consistently with, type 3 shield. All photos are of 8 real cobs, except figure 2 which is a 4 real.

WEIGHT

By royal order a real (equivalent to 12½¢) should have weighed 3.38 grams. However, because of the minting method, clipping, and sea damage, most of these coins are so far underweight and weights vary so much that we can see no significance in the weight, except as an aid in attributing between 4 and 8 real pieces. Figure 1 - 24.5 grams; figure 2 - 12.4 grams; and figure 3 - 27.0 grams.

FINENESS

The fineness of silver coin of colonial mint of 1536 to 1729 was to be 11 dinero 4 granos (930.51 present system), and by decree of 1497, the assayer was to place his mark on the coin. The only significance here is that if we find the assayer's initial (J) on a cob with a Bourbon shield (figure 1), it attributes the coin to the first reign of Philip V.

CROWN

The most major variation of the crown is in the band which may be jeweled (figure 10) or plain (figure 9), but seems to be of no significance in attributing, except that we have not seen a plain band crown on a type 3 shield.

FOUR AND EIGHT REALS

The basic design and its variations, including the shield type, in the 4 and 8 real pieces are similar if not identical. The size of the shield is, however, of no benefit in attribution be-

cause the design on some 8 real is smaller than on some 4 real pieces.

ATTRIBUTION

Time of minting:

1. The date is specific as is the legend PHILIPPVS V.

2. Bourbon escutcheon (on shield) eliminates all dates pre 1700.

3. A cob with the Bourbon escutcheon on the shield should be considered Philip V, unless it can be specifically attributed to Louis I by positive identification of Louis I in the marginal inscription (although Louis I ruled a short time in 1724, the coinage is so extremely rare that it must be positively identified, and cob minting was discontinued in 1732-34).

4. The shield type on Philip V cobs indicates early or late dates, and the variations of individual arms are used to attribute the shield types.

5. On Philip V, MO, cobs the assayer's initial (J) attributes the first reign of Philip V.

PLACE OF MINTING

1. MO mint mark is specific and attributes the Mexico mint.

2. Spanish shield, after 1650, attributes the Mexico mint.

REVERSE

Place of Minting

1. The Cross of Jerusalem with lions and castles in cantons on cobs after 1650 attributes Mexico mint.

2. "Balled ends" on the arms of the Cross of Jerusalem is MO mint, regardless of date.

* * * * *

(Editors Note:—The above article is based on the excellent two-case display entitled "Sea Salvaged Silver," which won the Best of Show Award at the May 1968 CSNA Convention in San Francisco).

Foreign Commemorative Coins

By JOHN E. OHLS, *San Francisco*

When I first decided to collect only commemorative coins, I realized I would have to make my own reference list. So, I carefully listed any

and all 19th and 20th Century pieces I came upon in a small three-ring binder, alphabetically by country. Soon I found that binder too small,

so I proceeded to re-do it, and this time I separated the 19th and 20th Century pieces and again carefully listed the 20th Century pieces.

Soon I found even this inadequate and I had to split up the 20th Century into two large binders. While I believe I now have the listing complete, much relative information still has to be added.

The 19th Century pieces are still waiting to be listed.

Of the 20th Century commemoratives which I have listed to date, there are more than 500 pieces from more than 50 countries.

One can't be interested in U.S. commemoratives to any great extent without soon getting interested in foreign commemoratives. One reason is that there are three countries which have issued commemorative coins that tie in directly with our own.

In 1892, Colombia, a small South American country, issued a silver 50-centavos coin to commemorate the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America. Obverse, portrait of Columbus; Reverse, Arms. This portrait differs somewhat from our own Columbian half dollar.

In 1938, Sweden issued a 2-kronor piece to commemorate the 300th anniversary of the landing of the first Swedes in what is now Delaware. Obverse, portrait of Gustavus V. king of Sweden at the time of issue; Reverse, Swedish ship with a crown above.

The Philippines issued two commemoratives, 1-peso and 50-centavos pieces, honoring our own General Douglas MacArthur, who did much to drive the invading Japanese out of the Islands. Obverse, portrait of MacArthur to right; Reverse, Arms. Three pieces, 2-pesos and a 50-centavos dated 1936 and commemorating the establishment of the Commonwealth in 1935, also should be included.

With these added to his U.S. commemoratives, the collector now has a good start toward a collection of commemorative coins of the world.

There are many things to recommend them.

SIZES — They come in all sizes, from the smallest conceivable gold coin to the largest silver piece imaginable. They run the gamut of coin sizes in most any millimeter one can name.

METALS — They come in almost any coinage medium one could ask for — gold, silver, nickel, bronze, brass, aluminum, aluminum-bronze, copper-nickel, nickel-bronze, cupro-nickel, copper, pewter, iron, and even wood and porcelain.

CONDITION — Many come in a brilliant proof condition, some in a matt proof; but most come uncirculated. To me a worn coin loses much of its beauty, and some of these pieces are done in such low relief that the least wear makes details undiscernible.

COST — These coins are not expensive, generally speaking. While they are normally of smaller issue than the regular coinage, even when sold at a premium they are not too costly. Particular collectors who choose to collect the choice proofs naturally will find these somewhat scarcer pieces more expensive, but not prohibitively so.

RARITIES — Of the 20th Century pieces there are very few of these. The \$50 gold pieces of the Panama-Pacific Exposition are the most expensive, currently selling for about \$800 to \$900 each.

A 100-perpera gold piece of Montenegro, 1910, is catalogued at \$500 and a Bulgaria 100-leva gold piece, 1912, at \$300. Both of these last two are about \$20 gold size.

There is a 3-mark silver piece of Saxony which catalogues at \$350; and one of Bavaria at \$300. A 1-rouble piece of Russia, 1914, will go well over \$100. A few of the scarce pieces sell from \$50 up. This is only about 1% of rare pieces.

COMMEMORATIVE EVENTS — This is unquestionably the most interesting thing about commemoratives, and without it they would not be commemorative. This is what puts the story behind the coin and also has much to do with its design.

It goes without saying that more than 90% of these pieces are issued for an anniversary of one kind or another, and so are sometimes too casually overlooked for their particular stories.

The 200th anniversary of a birth or death or the 25th or 50th wedding anniversary are the ones that are most common.

There are some commemoratives whose commemorative event often is misconstrued or at least misquoted. For instance, our own Columbian half dollar often is spoken of as commemorating the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America, to say nothing of the fact that the ship on the reverse often is referred to as a caravel, which it is not.

The 5- and 10-ducat pieces of Czechoslovakia of a date other than 1929 are not commemorative, no more than is the 50-pesos of Mexico dated 1931 or any date other than 1921. This applies also to the Booker T. Washington and the Carver half-dollars and others.

Let us look for a moment at some of the more interesting events commemorated by coins:

AUSTRALIA 1927 — A silver florin commemorating the opening of Parliament. This innocent-sounding statement fails to reveal any part of the real story behind this piece. Suffice it to say that from out of a hillside where once there were only rocks and sand, arose the beautiful city of Canberra, built to be the national capital.

CHINA — The automobile dollar. A Chinese warlord bought an automobile and then had roads built to accommodate it. Later, while defending his province against enemies, he preceded his troops in his automobile. Unfortunately, he preceded his troops too far and was captured and killed by the enemy. This coin commemorates the completion of the provincial highways.

GERMANY 1930 — 5- and 3-marks silver commemorate the world flight by the great Graf Zeppelin in 1929.

MONTENEGRO 1910 — 100-perpera gold and 20- and 10-perpera gold commemorate three events — 50 years as a kingdom, 50 years of the reign, and the 50th wedding anniversary of the King and Queen.

NEW ZEALAND 1949 — Was to have been for the visit of the King and Queen to that country. Illness prevented this, but eventually the piece was released. Technically, it commemorates an event which never took place.

So much for natives . . .

A gold ducat with Theresa of Austria commemorate her repose.

In 1701, an aloe been introduced i years previously, first time and thereof the Duke and Anton Ulrich Wolfenbuttel struck coin has on one the plant in blood ate inscription.

Ancient coins, esting commemor I will mention her

If you think modern nuisance, was in good world as the 1st Century the Emperor Caligula better moods, had commemorated thing a small bronze name and the let in Roman, "Remission" in English, "Remission" which is about equal on the dollar.

Tyre was a fair Phoenicia and is now Lebanon. It was purple dye. One at Tyre a dog pl shell to pieces. Ty lips purple. His m The murex was c of bushels, ground This rich purple c an object of pride portance. To cor and to give due coins were struck and the shell an orum" meaning "

These pieces I but a few of the commemorative c mines of intrigue for the person w digging. They al in innumerable w display, study or

In closing, I tl appropriate to de in the accepted F they are: Wor cleverly designed, equally distribute joyfully owned, played.

Swedish Plate Money

By Everett S. Ostrom, Kingsburg

Legal copper coins were first minted in Sweden in 1624. While copper coins were struck prior to that date, for example John III 2 ore 1573, they were when minted given a very thin coat of silver plating and issued as silver coins.

This copper coinage was started by the great lack of silver which prevailed in the country because of the considerable quantities of minted silver required for the liquidation of a debt to Denmark. Sweden was bound by the treaty of Knared to pay war damages to Denmark to the amount of a million riksdalers specie, within a period of six years. As a pledge, Denmark took over the Fortress of Alvsborg together with several towns, including the town now known as Gottenberg, the seaport town of all Atlantic travel. What this meant to the Swedish government can best be understood by a comparison of the value of goods in those days. For a riksdaler, one could buy 26 pounds of butter or four bushels of rye, or for three riksdalers, a full grown ox.

King Gustavus Adolphus called the payment of this debt "the consuming cancer of the country" and when it was finally paid in full the country was exhausted of silver to such a de-

gree that even the table silver of the king had to be sent to the mint.

At the same time the silver was thus exported to pay this debt, the silver mines began to make less money for the realm. On the other hand, the copper mine at Falun became of an increasing importance as a means of finance.

Royal order stopped all export of black copper by private persons, except by payment of a tax, which became a remunerative source of income.

All this formed the background for the commencement of the copper coinage in Sweden:

The country suffered from want of silver.

An increase in coinage of silver would have increased purchases abroad.

King would have had to reduce the standard of silver currency, resulting in sudden rise of market prices.

Solution lay in copper coinage.

There was an abundance of copper in the country.

Swedish copper had a very great influence on world copper prices.

Remember also, except for smallest coins, the so-called billon silver coins, all coinage in those days had to be of full value. Each piece of money was deemed, therefore, to contain metal in value corresponding to the face value, regardless of the metal used.

Under such circumstances, the idea of substituting copper for the main currency was not farfetched.

In the year 1644 the idea of the main monetary denomination in copper was realized by the manufacture at Avesta of the first piece of plate money of the value of 10 Swedish dalers. This lasted one year and stopped. Then in 1649 coinage was resumed, the highest being only 8 dalers and 4, 2 and 1 dalers. This continued without any long break until 1759 which is the last date met with on plate money although the coinage was continued until 1776 with the use of dies of earlier years.

This plate money forms a type of coinage of highest interest and is



$\frac{1}{2}$ Daler, Carl XII, 1715. Carl XII ruled 1697-1718. Actual size of coin about 4 by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. " $\frac{1}{2}$ Daler" means $\frac{1}{2}$ dollar on silver standard. "S.M." stands for "silver money." The corners are "klipped" to get the correct weight.

peculiar to Sweden. Only Russia imitated this type of coinage during the reign of Catherine, 1725-1727. Plate money of the denomination of 1 rouble, ½ rouble and 10 copecks were made with only the 10 copecks being put into circulation.

In the royal Danish Coin Collection there is also a 1 Mark plate money dated 1714 issued by Frederick IV, but no information regarding its manufacture or authenticity has been printed that I know of at this time.

To return to the Swedish plate money, foreign numismatists very often class it as money of necessity.

The only Swedish plate money which can be really counted as money of necessity is that coined in Wismar in 1715, made of gun metal owing to the scarcity of currency in the town during the siege of that year. All other Swedish plate money is ordinary current money and, as already explained, not in any sense money of necessity, but the natural consequence of the peculiar circumstances as to the supply of different kinds of metals, which prevailed in Sweden during the 17th and 18th centuries.

The plate money piece of 1644 of the value of 10 Swedish dalers is undoubtedly the biggest and heaviest coin ever issued. Its dimensions are 70 x 30 cm. and weight 19.71 kilogs. This issue consisted of 27,000 pieces. Most of them probably never were put into circulation, but were used successively for manufacture of other copper coins. Only three known specimens of this Queen Christina 10-daler plate money are known to exist.

During the year 1718 a recoinage of plate money took place to a very great extent. As the information of this recoinage found in numismatic literature is somewhat scanty, and above all, gives an unsatisfactory explanation of its purpose, I will try to give a correct account of the recoinage itself as well as of the circumstances bound up with it. Toward the end of the year 1717, special measures were considered necessary in order to recall to the Crown Treasury such full copper money as was calculated still to remain in the country, and at the same time to further the putting into circulation of the new money of necessity, the so-called "1 daler silver money" tokens.

For such purpose, a rescript was issued on Dec. 5, 1717, prescribing that the value of all copper money,

both plate money and other, of earlier as well as of later date, after March 1, 1718, should be reduced by a third. A new order, however, called for delivery to any public office, and the owner was to receive its full value in exchange in tokens or notes.



1 Daler, Carl XI, 1663. Carl XI ruled 1660-1697. Actual size of coin about 6 by 6½ inches. No more than four coins are known of this extremely rare daler. "Soliff: Mvt" means "silver mint" or "silver standard". The information stamped in each corner, translated, means "Carl King of Sweden, Gotland and Vanland". The two lines appearing on the illustration are wires which the photographer used to hold the coin in place.

All plate money thus withdrawn as well as that already in offices of the Crown or in a bank was to be exempt from depreciation and in order to indicate this, should be provided with an impression on the obverse, containing the arms of Gotland which is a lion upon three streams or streamers in a shield, dividing the date 1718.

People manifested little interest to exchange good money for tokens and evidently preferred to submit to the depreciation of the plate money. Therefore, the Crown issued an order that a new stamp would have to be placed on the reverse of the plate money. This new stamp was Three Crowns, the Coat of Arms of Svealand.

All these frequently repeated alterations of the value in general circulation of a currency, whose real value only depended upon the copper price of the day, contributed largely to the confusion of monetary affairs in Sweden. A confusion enhanced by

the monetary policy followed in the last years of the reign of Charles XII on the advice of Baron de Gortz.

By the so-called Monetary Realization Law of November 1776, plate money ceased to be legal currency in general circulation. With rising prices of goods and falling monetary value, the inconvenience of the plate money became more and more obvious. The silver coinage of the preceding years of the reign of Gustavus III, on the other hand, had been very extensive, and in addition, paper money since the middle of the 18th century had come into more general use. Plate money had certainly disappeared from daily circulation long before it ceased to be legally current and lay in the strong rooms of the bank—like gold in our day—as cover for an issue of paper money or as a security for drafts.

The difficulties that arose owing to the fluctuations of the copper prices probably contributed also to the suppression of plate money. Sweden was no longer the principal copper-producing country in the world, nor could she influence the price of copper on the world market. As intercourse between

countries and continents became easier, variations in supply and demand for copper caused frequent fluctuations in copper prices, and as it was impossible to allow the rates of exchange of the copper currency to follow all these fluctuations, the usefulness of copper as a monetary metal came to an end, insofar as its use as full value money, or so-called main currency.

These circumstances perhaps also throw some light upon another strange feature of Swedish coinage at the end of the 18th century, namely, the total suspension of all copper coinage in Sweden during the period 1779-1801, although at that time a very great need of small money prevailed. The fact was so little understood that small subsidiary coins did not need to be of full intrinsic value, that copper as a monetary medium was considered as definitely played out.

(Editor's note: The above article is a reprint from *Calcoin News*, volume 8, number 1, January 1954. This is the only article on Swedish plate money to appear in any issues of *Calcoin News*. No doubt some of our members have additional information on this very interesting phase of numismatics—and we would welcome other articles on this subject for future issues of *Calcoin News*.)

The Lowlands and Numismatics

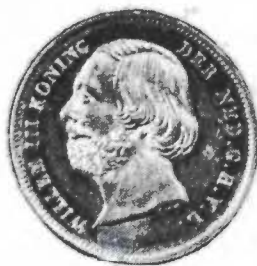
By MILTON C. STRAUCH, Daly City



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Coinage of Lowlands

The leading inspiration behind my hobby of collecting coins was my long-time fascination with the history of the Netherlands. The true extent of this fabulous field gradually unfolded before me as time passed, and as I became aware of the historic setting of each new acquisition. Interest finds a way of grouping and establishing its own organization, and perhaps the most convenient presentation to make on this topic is to trace the development of coins through the various eras.

Early coins of truly Dutch and Belgian national character cannot be found before about 1572, for the region we now know as the Netherlands and Belgium was under foreign domination. The Lowlands changed conquerors among the Burgundians, the Spanish, and the Austrian Hapsburgs at various times before nationalism took root and the people threw off foreign control. Coins used in the Lowlands until 1572 emanated from whichever conqueror happened to be in possession at the time, and they reflected no local character whatsoever. This early period holds little interest for me, which is reflected in my collection by few coins.

Typical of how a coin represents an historic period is my coin from Leyden, a 5-sol piece, 1574 (both in silver and paper). This town heroically withstood a terrible siege by the Spaniards in the general surge to freedom, and in the ensuing reaction by the Hapsburg conquerors. In order to break this long siege, the Dutch opened the dikes and flooded the pasture land, permitting their fleet to reach almost to the city gates. The Spanish, led by the Duke of Alva, were annihilated. Before the siege was broken, however, the citizens ran out of metal for coining, and Bibles from the churches were collected and sent to the temporary mint, where they were laminated and pressed into the original dies that were designed for metal coins.

Haarlem did not fare as well as her sister city, and was retaken by the Spanish after a savage defense.

The conquerors in reprisal exacted terrible vengeance, murdering all the soldiers in the town. The governor of Haarlem donated his personal silver objects, which were melted down for coinage, and of which my collection includes a half-campaign dollar (1572). In 1577, Haarlem was recaptured by William of Orange, and was permanently incorporated in the United Netherlands. This was the period when, along with the establishment of Dutch independence, this tiny nation gained mastery of the sea which it held for a substantial length of time. It was not until much later that the British were to challenge this position.

The nine Southern Provinces (modern Belgium), were united in 1578 by the Spanish. Prior to this, they had supported the northern states (modern Netherlands) in the revolt, but being unable to gain their freedom, as did their neighbors, they settled down to remain under Spanish rule. Brussels and a few other Belgian cities issued siege coins during this period.

The Treaty of Westphalia, 1648, gave recognition of independence to the Netherlands. This was the start of the so-called "Golden Age". The individual provinces issued their own coins. Groningen, for example, struck a half cavalier (7 gulden) gold piece, kept in circulation until the time of Napoleon. Likewise, Utrecht minted a cavalier (14 gulden). The other provinces issued the above as well as 3-gulden silver coins. Today's modern rixdollar is a development from the individual silver ducats, which first were struck in 1659.

The Netherlands Union, a very small country, could not continue to maintain her formidable naval position. The enriched motherland was fast growing soft, about the time of the Peace of Utrecht (1713), which ended the War of the Spanish Succession, and the Dutch were starting to give ground to their formidable British rivals. The Dutch were sympathetic with the cause of the American colonial movement, and relations with England deteriorated. This led to open war in 1780, when England

captured several of the Dutch colonies that she wanted. The Peace of Paris, 1764, wrote a sad ending to a disastrous war, in which the Dutch Empire started to shrink.

In Belgium, the Spanish period lasted until the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. The territory was given to Austria, and became known as the Austrian Netherlands. They pursued a policy of benevolent despotism, giving the local provinces a large degree of autonomy, as witnessed in their various coins minted in their principal cities. Emperor Joseph's disregard for "national prejudices" earned special dissatisfaction in the Austrian Netherlands, and a local revolt broke out in Brabant province in 1788. Joseph died in 1790 and was succeeded by Leopold, who was a statesman. By his moderation, he was able to quell the revolt and then restored the revolvers' privileges. During this revolt, Brabant issued two coins, one of which is in my collection, the silver crown of 1790 (also known as the lion).

In 1795, the French set up the Batavian Republic in the aftermath and burst of energy which followed the French Revolution. The same type coins continued to be minted by the individual provinces. This was a period of political confusion in the Netherlands. Napoleon, in 1806, placed his brother, Louis, on the throne, ending the republic. This new puppet kingdom lasted only four years. All mints in the Netherlands were closed in 1806, with the exception of the one at Utrecht. During the brief reign of the too-gentle King Louis, who finally earned the dissatisfaction of Bonaparte, the coins were changed in design (denominations remaining the same), reproducing the effigy of Louis on the obverse, while on the reverse the Dutch coat of arms is depicted quartered to Napoleon's, adding the Imperial French eagles to the Dutch lions.

In 1810, the Kingdom of Holland was formally annexed as an integral part of the French Empire. The Utrecht mint joined the rest of the French Empire in coining the various gold and silver francs and minor coins, which were universal coinage in the Empire.

In 1792, the armies of the French Republic overran the Austrian Netherlands, annexing them immediately

and directly to France. An interesting episode of this period is to be found in 1814, at the time of the rapid disintegration of the French Empire, when the Allies were besieging the city of Antwerp. The French were forced to mint emergency money, issuing 5- and 10-centime pieces in copper.

With the overthrow of Napoleon, the Netherlands and Belgium were united by the Treaty of Vienna, 1815. This proved to be an unfortunate and unsatisfactory arrangement and was terminated by the revolution of 1831, from which Belgium emerged as an independent state. Since that time, the two countries have remained in their present forms. The Dutch have depicted the ruling monarch on their coins, backed by the coat of arms of the House of Orange. The only exceptions to this form are the 1- and 2-ducat gold pieces, depicting the traditional knight in armor, persisting until 1854 and 1937, respectively. From 1831 on, the sole remaining Belgian mint, Brussels, followed the pattern of its neighbor, in depicting the ruling monarch on the coins, backed by the coat of arms of the ruling house, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

The colonial coins conform very closely to the motherland issues, in that they are nearly identical, being distinguished by a letter indicating destination for distribution. The Netherlands Antilles, comprising such islands as Curacao, St. Martin and St. Eustatius, carried the letter "W", replaced since World War II by the name Netherlands Antilles. The Netherlands East Indies, with such well known islands as Java,

KEY TO PLATE

1. Leyden, 5-sols, silver, 1574; rev. Latin legend. 2. Utrecht, 14-gulden or cavalier, gold, 1763; cuirassed man on horseback galloping; Latin legend, meaning "Union is strength"; rev. coat of arms, Utrecht Province. 3. Netherlands 20-gulden, gold, King William III, 1851; rev. arms of the Netherlands (rare, only 2500 minted). 4. West Friesland ducaton or silver rider, 1673; cuirassed man on horseback galloping; Latin legend, "Coin of the United Dutch Provinces"; rev. arms of the States General; silver. 5. Brabant (province of Belgium) lion of Belgium, 1790; rev. coat of arms of 11 cities; silver. All coins are illustrated actual size.



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Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes (these islands now comprise the independent state of Indonesia), distinguished their coins from the motherland with the initials "V.O.C.", replaced in about 1800 by the name "Netherlands Indies".

In general, the coins for the Belgian Congo are hardly distinguishable from those in Belgium proper. Certain minor exceptions are to be found in details such as the coat of arms, and an elephant instead of the monarch, for a special issue.

The United States has honored Dutch colonial achievements in such commemorative issues as the following half dollars: 1924, Huguenot-Walloon Tercentenary; 1935, Hudson-New York Sesquicentennial; and 1936, Long Island Tercentenary.

The Union of South Africa in 1952 issued a commemorative crown honoring the Dutch colonizers in South Africa, the Boers, the first settlers in that region.

Since receiving its independence in 1949, Indonesia has issued five coins, 1-, 5-, 10-, 25- and 50-sen pieces, which replace the former Dutch circulations.

This brief prospectus has been designed to show the relationship between the development of coins and the growth of a nation. The various historic milestones are in every case reflected in a particular coin or series of coins. When times were especially pressing, unusual specimens resulted, such as the laminated paper coins of Leyden. Conversely, when times were prosperous, more denominations were put in circulation in order to take care of the finer shades of commercial life. It is extremely significant that such a tiny area as the Lowlands should be so rich in history-lore, and at the same time occupy such a prominent position in the field of numismatics.

THE END

Canadian Coins

By PAUL H. HAMM, San Diego

Continued from November

In 1935 the first Canadian silver dollar was struck, commemorating the 25th year of the reign of George V. The reverse shows an Indian and a Voyageur paddling a birch bark canoe loaded with furs along a rapidly flowing stream. The quest for these furs, probably above all else, was responsible for the exploration and settling of Canada. The canoe is passing an island on which Jack Pines grow and in the background the sky is aglow with the Northern Lights. How very appropriate that this, the first commemorative coin, should depict so much of the history and grandeur which are symbolic of Canada. After this time more and more of it appears. With the vast number of inland lakes and rivers as well as the sea coasts where fishing and shipping are the big industries, it is not surprising that boats appear on many of the coins.

Under George V was issued the scarcest of Canadian coins and hence the highest priced to the collector. The 1921 half dollar which catalogs at \$3500, the 1921 5-cent silver piece which catalogs at \$400, and the 1936 dot dime and dot cent which catalog at \$1500 each are the four scarcest coins of the entire Canadian series. Although the dot coins are listed under George V and are dated 1936, last year of his reign, they were not minted in that year but in 1937. As has been stated, when a new ruler takes the throne, coins bearing his likeness are minted. At the death of George V and the subsequent crowning of George VI in 1937, new dies had to be made. Because 1937 dies were not yet ready and a great need for cents, dimes and quarters was felt, it was decided to use the 1936 dies to relieve the shortage. This being an emergency issue, a hole was punched in the die below the date, thus making a raised dot appear on the coin. Probably the hole soon filled up and, of course, this caused the dot to disappear from the coin. So far, only eight dot dimes and eight dot

cents have come to light, only two of each having been found in circulation. The quarter, however, is much more easily found as evidently the die for the quarter did not fill up so quickly.

The mint report shows 176,793 half dollars minted in 1921. If we look back to the year before, we find another heavy minting. The demand was rather light for half dollars during the year 1921 and as a result, with a vast amount of the previous issue on hand, the mint met the calls for them by sending out the 1920 half dollars. This resulted in the mint having practically all of the 1921 issue at the end of the year. It was decided to melt them down and half dollars were not again minted until 1929. Two and one-half million 5-cent silver pieces were minted in the first part of 1921 before it was decided to conserve silver and use a larger nickel coin for this denomination. Since they were melted down it is probable that the only 5-cent silver and 50 cent pieces that ever left the mint were the few that were issued during the first part of the year to those requesting mint sets. Only about 80 of these two coins are known to exist and nearly all of these are uncirculated or nearly so, thus bearing out the fact that few, if any, ever were issued for general circulation.

The next type Canadian coin is that of George VI, 1937-1952. During these years there were several changes in designs. The half dollar and the quarter took on a new reverse that not only depicts more history of Canada but also brings beauty to the coinage, especially to the half dollar. These two coins had borne the same reverse from the time of the first issue of 1873 until the death of George V in 1936. In 1937 the history of Canada unfolds itself on the reverse of the half dollar. At top just below the 50 cents is the Imperial Crown, symbol of Canada's place in the British Commonwealth of Nations. On the shield are

the arms of the four nations from which came most of Canada's original settlers, the pioneers who helped to build a new nation. Three lions, England; the Scottish lion; the Irish harp; and three fleur-de-lis of old France. On the lower part of the shield is a sprig of three maple leaves, Canada's emblem. Supporting the shield is a lion on the left holding the Union Jack and on the right a unicorn holding the lily banner of France.

On the reverse of the quarter we find the head of a caribou, a deer-like animal found only in northern Canada and one that has played an important part in Canada's development because of its usefulness to the people. Again Canada turns to nature proudly to show us her wonders as we look at the coin.

During George VI's reign the second and third commemorative coins made their appearance. These again are dollar-size coins. The 1939 dollar commemorates the visit of King George and Queen Elizabeth. The reverse shows the parliament building. A considerable number of proofs were struck and issued.

The third commemorative coin was again a dollar—that of 1949. This was to commemorate the entry of Newfoundland into the confederation and depicts the Mathew, the ship of John Cabot, who discovered Newfoundland in 1497. Here again we find a boat on one of Canada's coins and a beautiful coin it is! More history is here recorded by picturing an important event.

The fourth commemorative, the nickel of 1951, commemorates the two hundredth anniversary of the isolation of that metal by a Swedish chemist in 1751. A conventional refinery is the central motif. Here again a story as interesting as any novel is opened to anyone who will take the time to search out the coin's message.

More than 2000 years ago a flaming meteorite flashed through the skies to strike the earth in China. The Chinese found that a metal taken from the meteorite was an excellent alloy from which swords could be made. Truly these were "Swords-sent-from-Heaven" decided the Chinese warriors, when they found that such swords could snap other weapons in two when engaged in battle.

For centuries the Chinese held the secret of this wondrous metal which,

when alloyed with other metals, had so many worthwhile uses. One particular alloy which had a beautiful appearance was known to the Chinese as "Pakfong." For centuries the Chinese reaped profits in trade because of their exclusive knowledge of how to manufacture pakfong.

During the eighteenth century prospectors in Saxony rediscovered their "magic metal" but found that even after burning the ore for weeks the metal could not be separated. Because of their superstitions the miners feared that it was bewitched. Undoubtedly the culprit was "Old Nick" who thus gave his name to this most useful metal called nickel. It is, of course, fitting that Canada should have indicated its interest in nickel by means of striking the 1951 coin. More than half the world's supply comes from Canadian mines at Sudbury, Ontario.

When we look with pride at our collection of Canadian nickels, we remember that they are the most durable and require the least protection of any Canadian coins. And in our dreams our nickels are transformed into the ancient "Swords sent from Heaven."

The 5-cent nickel coins of Canada have the greatest variety of designs and probably are the most interesting. The war years demanded so much nickel for the war effort that Canada turned to other metals in order that nickel could be released. In 1942 a change was made to an alloy of 88 per cent copper and 12 per cent zinc. This was known as tombac. The coin also was made 12-sided to distinguish it from the bronze cent. In 1943 the zinc and copper coin was discontinued because of additional war demands and a new design was issued, the coin being struck in chromium-plated steel. This coin has a large V for victory in the center and around the edge in Morse code is inscribed "We win when we work willingly." This was intended as an incentive to the war effort.

In 1946 nickel again was used and the design reverted to that of pre-war but the coin remained 12-sided. The design on the nickel since the war is that of a beaver. How very fitting that Canada should turn to this little animal for a coin design. The beaver is without doubt more responsible for Canada's emergence from an unsettled wilderness to the

great nation that it is than is any other factor. It was this little animal which drew the early French Voyageurs up the rivers and streams in their canoes so that they could acquire beaver pelts, in great demand all over the world. Trading posts, such as Hudson's Bay Co., were established for this trade and were the outposts of civilization from which grew the cities and villages. Great fortunes such as that of the Astor family were founded almost entirely from this source. In the early trading days beaver skins were considered almost coin of the realm. Instead of how many dollars did anything cost it was how many beaver skins. Coins and tokens were issued in the denomination of beaver skins, such as the Hudson's Bay Co., which had coins of 1 made beaver, ½ made beaver, etc.

Primitive Indians claimed the beaver to be the reincarnation of man and that the world was made by the beaver. His work as an engineer and naturalist is well known and his contribution to Canada can hardly be overestimated. Here again a bit of Canadian history is depicted on the coins by use of this animal's picture.

The last bit of history will be found on the dimes of 1937 to 1958 and although it is more recent history it still is as interesting as any of the others. Canadians always have been interested in boats, quite naturally since sailing, shipping, fishing and canoes have played such a big part in their lives. So the story of the Blue Nose Schooner was bound to find its way onto one of their coins. In the International Schooner races held each year from 1926 between Canada, Great Britain and the United States, Canada, though try as hard as it could, never won the trophy. This resulted in heart-breaking disappoint-

ment on more than one occasion. Finally in 1936 Canadians designed a fishing schooner, "The Blue Nose," that was to win the much coveted trophy, beating the best that the United States had to offer and doing so again and again. So proud of this schooner the whole nation became, that it is not at all surprising to find it depicted on the 10-cent piece of 1937, where it has remained until the present.

Current coins, those of Queen Elizabeth II, bear her portrait on obverse. Coinage began in 1953 when she ascended the throne. Since 1954 the mint has made and issued a mint set to the public which has become known as "Canadian Proof-Like Set." These, however, are not proof sets but are carefully handled sets from polished dies which are sold at a premium. Proof sets have been made by the Canadian mint and issued to the public only in the years 1858, 1870, 1902, 1908, 1911 and 1937. These are quite scarce and sell at high premiums.

The fifth and last commemorative is the British Columbia dollar of last year, with its totem pole design symbolic of the Western Canadian Indians. The piece commemorates the one hundredth anniversary of this province. I would like to point out that the five commemorative coins that have been issued by Canada are coins that have been put into general circulation and at no time has a premium been charged by the mint. This is not true of our commemoratives which are very numerous and in very few cases ever were issued by the mint for general circulation, but rather as souvenirs.

So there you have it. What other country can tell such a story and what other coins are so interesting?

DID THE EAST INDIA COMPANY PIRATE THE 1778 8 REALES OF CAROLUS III?

By VIRGIL HANCOCK, Bellaire, Texas

Do you have a die-struck Carolus III 8 reales of 1778 AD, Mexico mint, with pure silver content only 60 per cent . . . 0.600 fine?

If so, you have a museum piece,

plus probably proof that officials and/or merchants connected with the English East India Company pirated the design of that coin of the King of Spain, and minted it at or near

Canton (Kwangtung), China!

The "case for the prosecution" starts in 1923, when in his "Silver Bullion \$1.29 One Ounce" W. P. Halloran wrote:

"Those who had given the trade of China even a cursory study were well acquainted with the singular preference which the Chinese people always had shown for the old Carolus 8 reales. This preference for this Spanish dollar, with its obverse and reverse design, and its 377 grains of pure silver, had led to the collection of 8 reales from every port in the world for the China market. British trade in China, therefore, was handicapped by the fact that, with a constantly increasing demand for this Spanish brand coin, the supply on the market was rapidly becoming exhausted.

"A seeming solution of this growing and increasing difficulty was discovered by the establishment of a mint near Canton for the manufacture of the Carolus III 8 reales of a date 1778. Native workmen with London-made dies and other appliances were employed. No doubt it was a fraud to pirate the trademark of the King of Spain, regardless of the fact that the quantity and the quality of silver bullion were identical in every respect. The native or pirated 8 reales was an exact facsimile of the Spanish 8 reales, in weight, fineness and brand.

"But this mint proved a failure. The greed for profit led the officials to debase the coin until coins were issued six parts silver, four parts alloy. The keen eye of the Chinese shroff, who is the native assayer, was alive to the distinction, and the shroffs take the debased 8 reales at a discount corresponding to the actual weight of pure silver in the coin."

Then, in 1959, in his "The United States Trade Dollar", John Willem wrote:

"The Chinese came to view with suspicion all coin except the Spanish, and on which they could keep a practiced eye. This reliance upon the Spanish dollar resulted in a crisis when hostilities broke out between Spain and England in the summer of 1779. The war made it about impossible to obtain Spanish dollars in quantity in London. Alarmed by the state of affairs, Company (E.I.C.) officials in Canton proposed to the

Governor General of E.I.C., Warren, in India, as follows:

"If you could coin the money you design for this place in the form of old milled Mexico dollars, it would be a very advantageous manner of sending it: If that is improper, a coin of the same weight and fineness, with the Company's arms instead of the Spanish, would, we believe, answer equally as well. The dollar ought to be exactly . . . 92/100 parts fine silver. We have sent an old milled Mexico dollar enclosed."

"The Company responded by sending dies and other equipment for the manufacture of the Carolus dollar dated 1778, the year previous to the beginning of the war. A mint was set up near Canton, and coinage begun."

In "The Currencies of China", Edward Kann wrote:

"From AD 1757 Canton was the only port open to foreign trade, and it retained that monopoly for about a century.

"Encouraged by the permanent hold which the Carolus dollar had gained on the mercantile community in the principal trade centers, the Chinese officials, towards the close of the 1700s (the close of the 18th century), desired to halt the further inflow of foreign coins. They therefore induced some of the Chinese silversmiths to manufacture dollars, in every respect similar to the Carolus dollar. The tendency became apparent on the part of the silversmiths to adulterate the home-made coins by reducing their fine content, adding alloy up to 50% instead of the legally permitted 10%."

And, twenty pages further on, Kann wrote:

"The free circulation of the Carolus dollar in China induced the silversmiths in the South to manufacture, with the connivance of the officials, similar coins within the country. The home-made product proved, however, to be only a poor imitation of the original, not only in workmanship, but also as regards the excessive content of alloy in the coins. In order to protect themselves against such irregularities, Chinese money changers and bankers started to stamp (chop) the genuine silver dollars with an ideogram, thus giving a pledge of genuineness. This happened first,

toward the end of the 18th century (the 1700s) in the city of Canton."

So much for "the case for the prosecution."

Now, "the case for the defense" of The English East India Company.

Captain Fred Pridmore, whom I consider to be a most careful, thorough, and most knowledgeable authority on coinage of the British Empire, wrote me last month from Cyprus that he is positive that The English East India Company had no part whatsoever of any such mint, if such a private mint ever existed for making the Carolus dollar.

Capt. Pridmore writes:

"I have looked over a large amount of E.I.C. records, and have found no record of a mint for (Spanish or Mexican) dollars. Nor do I believe the E.I.C. would do such a thing as forging a foreign coin. Despite what has been said about their minting coins of India, every coin type they issued was sanctioned either by the Mogul emperors, or his Nawabs, as principal chiefs. For the China trade, they imported dollars to India from England, or by trade through the Philippines.

"A private mint was in operation in Atjeh in North Sumatra about 1828, and, according to Penang police records, was striking Spanish dollars of good quality, but this was an illicit mint and not E.I.C. For forgeries of Spanish dollars you will have to come to England and America. I know of no mints in the East earlier than 1792 which had the equipment to strike coins to the standard of the Spanish dollar."

In pursuit of the truth or non-truth about the existence of an E.I.C. sponsored mint in China, I bought the en-

tire five volumes of "The Chronicles of The East India Company Trading to China, 1634-1834", carefully read every word of the 1,799 pages and found no hint at all that there ever existed such a Carolus III dollar mint in any part of China.

To the contrary, the E.I.C. Chronicles are full of precise records of the silver and gold coins carried to China, ship by ship. In the Chronicles there constantly occur pleas from the E.I.C. officials in Canton to the E.I.C. governor in India to send more silver coins. Had the E.I.C. operated a mint in or near Canton, it would seem that E.I.C. could have minted all the coins it needed because, according to the E.I.C. Chronicles, silver bullion was available in China.

So, did The English East India Company pirate that 8 reales of 1778?

The jury is still out!

Commander Howard Bowker suggests that further search be made in "Chinese Commercial Guide", by John Robert Morrison, published in Canton in 1834 or 1848. Also in "The China Repository", vol. 5, no. 9, of January 1837. Another needed work is "Annals of The Coinage", by The Rev. Rogers Ruding.

If any reader knows the whereabouts of a copy of any of those publications, I'll be mighty happy to hear of it. And, if you have a die-struck Carolus III 1778 8 reales of 0.500 fine to 0.600 fine, Medico mint, I'd like to inspect your coin, and have Houston's Numismatic Technical Service photograph it.

(Reprint from February 1967 issue of **The TNA NEWS**, official publication of the Texas Numismatic Association.)

The Coins of China

An Address Delivered at the Santa Cruz Convention

By H. F. BOWKER, *Oakland*

The coins of China, a field in which I am very much interested, is perhaps a *terra incognita* to most coin collectors. Although most of them do have a few specimens in their collections, little attention is paid to them, in this country, due perhaps to the fact that most of their inscriptions are in Chinese

characters and consequently are believed to be difficult of decipherment. I make no pretense of being fully informed on all the possible ramifications of this subject, but am only a student.

It is impossible that anyone can fully understand all about Chinese numismatics, as having extended over

an unbroken period of in excess of 2000 years many unrecorded things have happened to the coinage, so that in many instances the coins themselves are the only remaining records of the events. It has been estimated that there are more than 15,000 known varieties of Chinese coins, but as this estimate was made in the second decade of this century before the torrent of 10-cash coppers, it is safe to say that there are probably double that number in existence.

Thus it is seen that the field is vast, and no one can have all of the coins, not even the great numismatic museums. Every collector who interests himself in this field has an excellent opportunity to acquire even great rarities, as not a single European or American dealer of whom I have any knowledge really understands them and frequently offers the rarest of coins at nominal prices. I also will admit that in consequence of their ignorance they also offer the commonest varieties at fantastic figures. Therefore, it behooves the collector to study his coins and to read as thoroughly as possible the existing published data which has appeared in print in the past.

I do not recommend the field of Chinese numismatics to a collector if he is of the mentality which accepts only specimens in "proof" condition, as such specimens are practically unknown and unobtainable in this field, even among the machine-minted coins issued during the last few years. However, there are other criteria of condition which are more valid in this field. The earlier coins must be considered as archaeological as well as numismatic specimens. Condition criteria are the legibility of the inscriptions, the completeness of the specimen in its original form, and the color and condition of the surface patination.

It is recommended that it is particularly desirable for one to accept into his collection the first specimen obtainable of each variety, regardless of its imperfections, for who knows if he ever will see another. I say this without discouraging one from try-

ing to improve the quality of the specimens in his collection if and when the opportunity presents itself. If

The Chinese have been coin collectors for hundreds of years and in that time have pretty well determined the sequence of the various series of coins, even those which antedate the time when they began to place the name of the reign period on the face of the coins as a part of their principal inscriptions. They also have established which coins are common and which are the rarities, and have not been above trying to make some of the rarities available to collectors by forgery. However, the greater part of their forgeries are not really deceptive as they generally are found to lack, in some respect, some of the characteristics of the genuine coins. After a little experience it usually is easy to separate the sheep from the goats.

In this connection I am reminded of a story told to me by a professor of one of the largest American universities. In his youth he was a refugee from Russia in Manchuria during the Bolshevik revolution and was employed by a Chinese farmer. When they planted the beans and other vegetable crops they also planted forgeries of ancient Chinese coins in the soil at the same time, as it had been determined that the soil in his field had some particularly desirable chemical quality which facilitated the aging of the coins. After the crops were harvested they dug up the coins and delivered them to their maker for entry into the channels of trade as authentic antiques. So you see there are pitfalls against which one must guard.

The Chinese field of numismatics may conveniently be divided into several sections; the ancient period extending down to the beginning of the Han dynasty, circa 200 BC., and including the cowries and their substitutes; the, by our present standards, odd-shaped knives, spades, axes, etc., and including the circular flat coins with round holes. Next come the medieval pieces, which are largely circular, flat-rimmed in shape with square holes of the familiar "cash" type. Then come the "modern" type struck coins, some of which retained the physical characteristics of the holed cash, but more commonly conform to the occidental notions of what a coin should be, an inscribed circular disc. In each of these great



H. F. Bowker

divisions may be found specimens which partake of the style of the earlier coinages, but they are the exception and not the rule.

Many materials have been used for Chinese coinages. The earliest appear to have been the natural cowries which were used by the Chinese of inner Asia before they conquered the areas bordering on the Pacific Ocean. These were obtained by barter from the peoples of southeast Asia. Indeed, pictographs of little men carrying long strings of cowries at either end of shoulder-borne carrying sticks have been found on early bronze vessels of the Chow dynasty. It is interesting to note that the Chinese character "pao" meaning valuable and which up to recent years appeared on the coins, has for its principal component part the radical for cowrie. This also is true of the character "yuan" meaning round, and by extension dollar, which also has the cowrie pictograph in its makeup. As a matter of fact, almost every Chinese word having to do with value or trade and analogous meanings has the cowrie radical in its character.

Because of the scarcity of natural cowries, the ingenious Chinese first made imitation cowries in stone, shell, bone, pottery, lead, and bronze, and in the latter case even gilded the bronze cowries to enhance their value.

Having discovered the relative better wearing qualities of metal tokens, bronze became the universal material from which the general circulating medium was made. From an early period the Chinese fully understood the greater relative value of gold and silver with respect to bronze, and both of these metals were in the possession of rulers, officials, and wealthy families, and did not circulate as coins until late years.

Throughout the many centuries during which the bronze "cash" made up the principal coinage of the common man in China, the size of the individual coins varied greatly. In times of wars and economic depressions they shrunk in size and weight to a mere fraction of their former weight. With the advent of peace and a new ruler or a new dynasty they regained their former weight and worth. All of these happenings added to the number of varieties which now go to fill the cabinets of

collectors, and when understood are the background of the romance of Chinese numismatics.

With the opening of relations with western nations on an extended scale after the first circumnavigation of the world, the Chinese expanded their foreign and domestic trade and in doing so began to absorb western ideas on financial matters. Millions of dollars worth of silk, tea, china, and other typical Chinese products previously practically unknown to the occident entered the trade of western nations from China. These were largely paid for in silver, the principal source of which was Mexico. Thus the "Mex" dollar became the principal circulating medium of the export trade, but did not supercede the heavy strings of bronze and brass cash in the interior among the Chinese.

The next move was for the Chinese to mint their own silver dollars and fractions thereof. In doing this they closely copied the size and fineness of the Mexican dollar. Because of the structure of the Chinese government at this period, the minting at first was done by the several provincial governments rather than by the Imperial government. This was the cause of a multiplicity of varieties as no nation-wide standard pattern was developed until the last days of the empire and the first days of the republic.

We now come to the matter of gold in China's coinage. The only time in China's long history when gold was minted for actual circulation occurred in Yunnan province between 1915 and 1920. At that time silver was at a considerable premium with respect to gold and the authorities minted three different series of gold coins of the \$5 and \$10 denominations. Mr. Eduard Kann states that of the last of these issues some 900,000 of the \$10 and 600,000 of the \$5 values were minted. As the market price of silver dropped sharply after World War I, the gold coins were melted down, so even these are now not too plentiful. We have on display the \$5 value of the first issue, a replica of the same value of the second issue in silver, and both the \$5 and \$10 values of the last issue. The inscriptions on the second issue present a curious feature and perhaps one which is unique, in that the values of the gold coins are stated

in terms of silver, for it is stated thereon "equal to five (or ten) silver dollars." The amount of gold in these coins at the time of their issue represented respectively only four and eight silver dollars; therefore, it was thought that they would remain in circulation. As the marked drop in the silver market was not anticipated, it was not long before they went out of circulation.

All other purported gold coins of China are either medallions, presentation pieces struck in gold from dies intended for use for silver coins, or essays of proposed reformed monetary systems to be based upon gold standards.

Perhaps it may be appropriate to comment on some of the features of the Chinese coins in my display here. There are a number of metal tokens which have been variously called "bridge-money," "dragon-head money," "tingle-tangle money" or "gong-money." It is difficult to believe that these pieces were ever intended to be used as money, and as a matter of fact I had always doubted it until I obtained the specimen which is displayed above the large stone piece. It will be noted that this piece has on its face two conventional representations of holed cash. There is another similar but slightly larger specimen in the collection of the American Numismatic Society Museum in New York. These and another piece similar to mine are the only such pieces I have ever seen or heard of. The large stone piece is an actual Chinese musical instrument, one of a set of resonant gongs which were used by ancient orchestras at religious ceremonies. These always have legs of unequal length. In this they differ from the metallic tokens, which invariably have the legs of equal length. I consider it doubtful that the metallic pieces could have represented the value of one of the stone gongs, no two of which in a set were of equal size. It is believ-

able that the small metallic hoes, spades, and knives could have represented the value, for purposes of barter, of an actual hoe, spade, or knife, but I find it difficult to believe that others of the several odd-shaped metallic pieces also were trade tokens.

Before closing, it seems appropriate to sound a word of warning against the large number of bogus silver pieces, mostly of the dollar and half-dollar sizes, which a few years ago flooded the market, and usually are represented as commemorative coins. With few exceptions, they do not resemble any known genuine Chinese coins or commemorative medallions, but are merely the product of the fertile imagination of a small group of racketeers. I am glad to be able to report that the principal one is now dead. When I was in China in 1939, they could be purchased in most Shanghai exchange shops for about one Chinese dollar each, which at that time was equivalent to 16 cents in U.S. currency. This gives one an idea of their intrinsic value as represented by the small amount of silver they contain.

A few years ago a Chinese dealer traveled throughout the U.S. offering any Chinese dollar for \$2. Needless to say, his wares were largely bogus, but many of them were disposed of to credulous dealers and collectors, and from time to time they appear in current auctions as rare coins. Some of these were even struck in gold. The best that can be said for these is that they are souvenirs or curiosities.

My advice to all collectors is to look with a jaundiced eye at everything in the line of struck gold and silver which is not listed in Mr. Tsiang's little book or *Coins of the World*, and not to be taken in by such rubbish. There are too many authentic and interesting coins in the genuine issues of China for one to be diverted by the glitter of these bogus pieces.

Coins of the Papal States

By **SIDNEY J. HAAS**, *Richmond*

The first pope to coin money was Adrian I, 771-795, he having acquired this privilege of temporal

sovereignty from Charlemagne.

The temporal power of the popes began during the rule of St. Zach-

arias, 741-752, with the gift of some land by the Byzantine emperor, further extended by a gift from Frankish King Pepin to Stephen II. Stephen II was assassinated in 898 A.D.

St. Leo III crowned Charlemagne Holy Roman Emperor, although he was secular, not holy; Frankish, not Roman; and a king, not an emperor. Valentine, 827, reigned only six weeks.

During the Middle Ages there often were two and sometimes three claimants to the papal throne simultaneously, and comparatively few coins were issued.

Christopher usurped the papal throne and put his predecessor, Leo V, in prison in 903. He, in turn, was ejected by Sergius III, who executed both of them in 904. Sergius restored the Lateran Basilica, the pope's cathedral. The 10th century saw 27 popes, besides various antipopes. In the 11th century only four of 18 are known to have issued coins.

From 1099 to 1303 the popes did not issue coins themselves, but left that duty in the hands of the Roman Senate — a mere shadow of the great legislature of ancient times. Actually, the papal governor of Rome, appointed by the pope with the title of senator, issued most of the coins between 1184 and 1439.

Many popes ruled only a few weeks or months. Many times there was a long interregnum between the death of a pope and the election of his successor, sometimes for two or three years. Some popes were illegally deposed, occasionally to return to the throne later. The first Jubilee or Holy Year was held in 1300 by Boniface VIII, who resumed the papal coinage.

From Clement V, 1304-1314, to Gregory XI, 1370-1378, the popes resided at Avignon, having been driven from the Eternal City by the lawlessness of its inhabitants; the latter returned, only to arouse such a dispute as to give rise to the Great Schism of the West.

Although no decision ever has been issued to the effect that any of the Great Schism popes was an antipope, the church has in effect held that those who reigned in Avignon 1378-1416 probably were.

In 1409 the Council of Pisa declared both popes, at Rome and at Avignon, to be deposed, and elected

a new one. Both the former ones refused to recognize this act, and the new pope had to remain in Pisa, thus splitting the church three ways instead of two. Then the emperor called a new council at Constance, which declared all three popes to be deposed in 1415, and in 1417 elected a new one, Martin V.

The popes who reigned in Pisa before this deposition have been included, however, in the official list of popes, even though there was a "legitimate" one sitting in Rome at the same time. All the cardinals appointed by all three lines of popes were recognized and continued in office.

The first Sede Vacante coins were issued in 1370; the first Jubilee coins in 1450, by Nicholas V. Alexander VI (Borgia) is said to have originated the Holy Door ceremonies in jubilee years, in 1500. The first piastra or silver scudo



PIUS VI — 5-baiocchi, 1797. Obsidional piece struck during French occupation of Civita-Vecchia, 1796-1797. Obv.: Sancta Dei Genitrix. In the October, 1926, Numismatist, there is illustrated an Indian Head cent showing three impressions of the die, with the comment by Farran Zerbe, "It is the only specimen I ever saw with three impressions". The 5-baiocchi copper piece pictured here, in the collection of C. V. Kappen, brings the number of known specimens to two. Coin actual size.

was issued by Sixtus V, 1585-1590. Innocent X, 1644-1655, issued the first scudo showing the pope wearing the tiara. In 1700, Jubilee coins were issued by Innocent XII and by Clement XI, as well as by Cardinal Spinola during the Sede Vacante.

In 1798-1799 the pope fled from Rome, which was occupied by French troops. The Roman Republic coined money at the Roman mint. Again, in 1807-1814, came French occupation, and the Roman state was annexed to the French Empire, which coined French Imperial coins at Rome in 1812-1813. Again, in 1849, the pope left Rome during the regime of another Roman Republic, which issued its own coins there. After 1859-1861 all the northeastern papal territories were lost by the pope, and they became parts of the Kingdom of Italy in 1861.

The pope continued to rule the Patrimonium Petri (the state surrounding Rome) until 1870. Napoleon III of France stationed troops there to prevent the Kingdom from annexing it, until the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 forced their withdrawal. The

kingdom then annexed Rome, which has been Italy's principal mint ever since. In 1866, the Patrimonium Petri having become flooded with the new-model Italian coinage, the pope changed the papal coinage to conform with it.

With the termination of the papal temporal sovereignty over Rome in 1870, the papal coinage came to an end, and only medals were issued. Not until the Treaty of the Vatican was signed by Mussolini in 1929 was this situation changed.

This treaty recognized the pope as the temporal sovereign over the Vatican Palace and its grounds (1/6 square mile), and gave him extraterritorial rights over church properties elsewhere. It gave him the right to issue his own postage stamps and coins, giving them legal tender value in Italian territory; but a limit was placed on the amount of coins to be made in any one year. The only exception was to be in the case of a Sede Vacante, a special issue of coins being made regardless of any amount of other coins having been issued.

COINAGE OF THE PAPAL STATES AND THE VATICAN CITY STATE

- 1184-1250 Roman Senate, denaro provisino, 1184-1250. The popes did not issue coins between 1099 and 1303. These senatorial issues were supplied to the Papal States.
- 1362-1370 Urban V, denaro, Rome. Resided at Avignon, France.
- 1370-1378 Gregory XI, denaro, Rome.
- 1464-1471 Paul II.
- 1492-1503 Alexander VI (Borgia), giulio, Rome; grosso, The Marches.
- 1534-1539 Paul III.
- 1550-1555 Julius III (1550 Holy Year).
- 1555-1559 Paul IV, grosso, Ancona.
- 1559 SEDE VACANTE, giulio, Rome. Such coins as these commemorate the interregnum between popes, during which the conclave sits to elect a new pontiff, and the papal chamberlain is the prefect who governs. The coins bear his coat of arms, and sometimes his name and titles.
- 1572-1585 Gregory XIII, quattrino. Macerata.
- 1592-1605 Clement VIII, Rome and Avignon.
- 1605-1621 Paul V, testone, Rome; bolognino, Bologna; quattrino, Ferrara.
- 1621-1623 Gregory XV.
- 1623-1644 Urban VIII, 1643 scudo.
- 1644-1655 Innocent X, 1645 scudo.
- 1670-1676 Clement X, 1672 scudo; 1673 scudo showing Blessed Pius V.
- 1676 SEDE VACANTE, scudo.
- 1676-1689 Innocent XI, scudo (2); testone.

- 1689-1691 Alexander VIII, 1690 testone.
 1691-1700 Innocent XII, mezzo scudo, testone; Holy Year 1700.
 1700 SEDE VACANTE, Holy Year scudo. Innocent XII opened the Holy Door, while Clement XI closed it, and three different Jubilee coinages were issued.
 1700-1721 Clement XI.
 1721-1724 Innocent XIII.
 1724-1730 Benedict XIII, quattrino; 1727 baiocco, Gubbio.
 1730-1740 Clement XII, testone.
 1740 SEDE VACANTE, baiocco of Geronimo Cardinal Colonna, prefect and governor of the conclave.
 1740-1758 Benedict XIV, 1749 testone; 1748 baiocchi; quattrino, Ravenna.
 1758-1769 Clement XIII, 1765 ½-testone.
 1769-1774 Clement XIV, 1773 testone.
 1775-1799 Pius VI, 1778 5-bolognini, Bologna; 1775 ½-scudo; 4-baiocchi of Perugia; 2½-baiocchi of Viterbo and San Severino.
 1800-1823 Pius VII, 1815 scudo; 1818 scudo of Bologna.
 1823-1829 Leo XII, 1825 scudo, Bologna.
 1830 SEDE VACANTE, scudo, 30-baiocchi.
 1830-1846 Gregory XVI, 1834 scudo, 50-baiocchi, 20-baiocchi, 5-baiocchi; and 1840 scudo.
 1846 SEDE VACANTE, scudo.
 1846-1878 Pius IX, 1853 scudo; 1865 20-baiocchi; 1862 10-baiocchi; 1853 5-baiocchi; 1870 5-lire; 1866 2-lire, 1 lira, 10-soldi, 4-soldi.
 1922-1939 Pius XI, 1929-39 Vatican City series, 10- and 5-lire silver; 2- and 1-lire, 50- and 20-centesimi nickel; 10- and 5-centesimi bronze. Similar, 1933-34 Holy Year set. A 100-lire gold piece was issued.
 1939 SEDE VACANTE, 10- and 5-lire silver, Eugenio Cardinal Pacelli.
 1939- Pius XII, gold 100-lire, silver 10- and 5-lire, nickel 2- and 1-lire, 50- and 20-centesimi (later steel), bronze 10- and 5-centesimi (later brass), comprise the first type. Second type includes the same. Third type 10-, 5-, 2- and 1-lire aluminum, none smaller. Fourth type, new designs for the 1950 Holy Year.



Japanese Stamped Silver Yen

By CHARLES V. KAPPEN, *San Jose*

According to coinage regulations of the 4th year of Meiji (1871), the coinage system of Japan was a gold standard. In 1878 the 1-yen silver

piece, which had been coined for use in treaty ports only, was made legal tender. By Imperial Ordinance No. 12 of the 11th year of Meiji (1878),

the double standard system of gold and silver came into being, but by 1897 Japan was living under a *de facto* silver standard system.

In 1873, the ratio between gold and silver was 1 to 15.5. In 1876, the ratio stood at 1:17.88. By 1879 it was 1:18; in 1885, 1:19; 1891, 1:20.92; 1892, 1:23.72; 1893, 1:26.49; 1894, 1:32.56; 1895, 1:31.60; 1896, 1:30.66; and in 1897, 1:39.70. The better ratios for silver in 1895 and 1896 were caused by the mistaken beliefs that the Chinese indemnity would be paid in silver and that the silver party would win the United States presidential election.

Chief causes for the fall in the price of silver were attributed by the Japanese to the greatly increased output of silver since 1871 and the establishment of the German Empire, which undertook to unify the coinage systems of the various portions of the empire by replacing the silver currency then in use with gold. The Germans adopted a gold standard in 1873 and began to sell vast quantities of silver, causing its depreciation.

In 1873 the U.S. adopted a gold standard and stopped coining silver dollars, except trade dollars. France limited silver deposits at her mints. Norway and Sweden adopted gold standards in 1874, and the Latin Union countries limited silver coinage. In 1875, Holland stopped free coinage of silver and Switzerland ceased minting silver coins entirely. France, Belgium, Spain and Russia followed these examples in 1876, and the United States withdrew the legal tender qualification of her silver trade dollar. All these measures helped bring about a fall in the price of silver.

These fluctuations of the price of silver in the world's market at once influenced Japan's economic and financial condition, since she was a *de facto* silver standard country. Prices of commodities went up, speculation spread rapidly, and state expenditures increased because of the rapid depreciation in the price of silver.

English currency to be received by Japan as payment of the Chinese indemnity according to provisions of the treaty of peace signed April 17,

1895, paved the way for creation of the gold reserve necessary for adoption of a gold standard. The time was ripe for coinage reform.

Count Matsukata Masayoshi, minister of state for finance, submitted drafts of a coinage law to the cabinet council Feb. 25, 1897. The cabinet adopted the policy contained in the Matsukata memorandum March 1, 1897, and first reading took place in the House of Representatives March 3 of that year.

The coinage bills introduced were approved in whole by a committee of 27 members, who reported to the House of Representatives March 10. The bills were passed without amendment.

First reading in the House of Peers took place March 15. A committee of 15 members reported the bills March 23, and they were passed without amendment as Coinage Laws No. 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20 of the 26th day of March of the 30th year of Meiji (1897).

Coinage Law No. 16 provided that the weight of two *fun* of pure gold should be the unit of the coinage, and should be called *yen*. Japan thereby adopted a gold standard and ceased minting the silver *yen*. Article 16 of the law stated, "The 1-yen silver coin hitherto issued shall be gradually exchanged for gold coins according to the convenience of the Government, at the rate of one gold *yen* for one silver *yen*. Pending the completion of that exchange, 1-yen silver coin shall be legal tender to any amount, at the rate of one silver *yen* for one gold *yen*; and the prohibition of their circulation shall be announced six months in advance by Imperial Ordinance. If these coins are not presented for exchange within the period of five full years, reckoning from the day on which their circulation is prohibited, they shall be regarded thenceforth as bullion."

The government set up a coinage adjustment fund for exchange and retirement of the silver *yen*. Careful research was made to determine the amount of silver *yen* which would be brought in for exchange with gold coins. Existing gold coins were given twice the value of gold coins issued under the new law.

The gold coin quality was established at 900 parts pure gold and 100

parts copper; the silver coins (legal tender to the amount of 10 yen) at 800 parts pure silver and 200 parts copper. Nickel and bronze coins were made legal tender up to the amount of 1-yen. No provision was made for the minting of 1-yen gold pieces as they would be so small in weight as to be inconvenient for daily transaction. Gold pieces of 5-, 10- and 20-yen denominations were struck.

Foreign banks at treaty ports feared that if the Japanese retirement policy for the silver yen were to proceed as planned, it would lead to a change in the market ratio between gold and silver. They notified their customers, therefore, that after Oct. 1, effective date of the coinage law, they would reserve the right to say whether specie payments could be made in silver or in gold.

This spurred withdrawal of the 1-yen silver coin. Coinage Law No. 5 of June 1, 1898, specified that "The exchange of 1-yen silver coins shall cease with the 31st day of July of the 31st year of Meiji (1898)."

The aggregate total of 1-yen silver coins retired under the law and of the silver bullion corresponding to the promissory notes of the mint to pay coins, also retired, was 75,093,-822 yen 4 sen 2 rin. Of this sum, 27,567,011 yen 58 sen 4 rin went into the minting of subsidiary coins; 40,-786,662 yen 45 sen 8 rin was sold at Hongkong, Shanghai and elsewhere, and 6,740,148 yen was sent to Formosa, Korea and Wei-hai-wei, to be placed in circulation in those places. Final disposal of the retired 1-yen silver coins and the silver bullion was completed in December, 1898.

In making the disposal as stated above, according to Count Matsukata, finance minister, "it was feared that if 1-yen silver coins were sold abroad in a perfect condition within the period allowed for their exchange, they would return again to be exchanged. For this reason it was decided to have the word 'silver' stamped on their face at the Mint that they should henceforth cease to be legal tender."* Count Matsukata instructed the Mint Bureau Sept. 9, 1897, as follows:

"The one-yen silver coin which shall be received by the Government in exchange for gold shall from time to time be forwarded to the Mint. The Mint shall after due examina-

tion stamp on its face an impress as shown below and return it to the Government Treasury.

"The Mint Bureau shall make arrangements so that the examination and stamping above mentioned may also be done at the Tokyo Branch of the Mint and submit the same for sanction.

"The Mint shall make an estimate of the expenses incidental to carrying out the above mentioned examination and stamping and submit the same for sanction.

"The form of the stamp to be placed on the silver yen shall be as follows:



— one bu and five rin in diameter." The stamp illustrated here has been enlarged to twice the diameter.

In accordance with these instructions, 20,450,000 coins were stamped, 18,350,000 at the Osaka Mint and 2,100,000 at its Tokyo Branch.

As The Coinage Law of 1897 was to go into effect in October of that year, the policy of Japan in regard to the coinage system of Formosa (Tai-wan Sotoku-Fu) was brought to the fore. Before passage of the coinage reform laws in Japan, however, Imperial Ordinance No. 9 of Jan. 28, 1897, had placed the minister of state for finance in charge of the currency and banking administration of Formosa. The governor-general of Formosa was to act under the finance minister's supervision in matters of currency and banking.

The minister of finance decided to enforce the gold standard in Formosa, but to use silver as far as possible in actual monetary transactions. His policy also was "to permit the existence of a market rate of exchange between gold and silver, in cases of large monetary transactions", and "to permit for the time being the use of silver bullion in public payments to the Government".

He believed a government mark should be placed on the 1-yen silver piece which was to be retired, and that the coin's use should then be allowed on the island. The minister submitted a memorandum to this effect to the cabinet Sept. 22, which was approved.

*Masayoshi, Matsukata. *Report on the Adoption of the Gold Standard in Japan.* Tokyo, 1899.

Imperial Ordinance No. 374 was issued Oct. 20, 1897, establishing that "The one-yen silver coin, with a Government stamp mark on it, may be used in Formosa for payment either to or by the Government. The payment by the Government shall only

Of 6,212,973 one-yen silver coins: disbursed in Formosa at current valuation under the coinage reform laws, 2,100,000 were of the stamped variety.



STAMPED YEN, both types. The two coins, pictured actual size, are from the C. V. Kappen collection.

be made with the consent of the payee." The stamped silver yen was not legal tender but was accepted in payment of taxes and other public dues.

First shipment of stamped silver yen to Formosa was made Oct. 12, 1897, and shipments continued as needed. When the exchange of silver yen was halted in July, 1898, the unstamped silver yen was put into circulation again in Formosa. Ordinance No. 19 of the Government of Formosa, dated July 31, 1898, put this policy into effect. Shipments of the stamped silver yen to Formosa came to an end and the retired unstamped silver yen there replaced it.

Stamped yen put in circulation in Korea totaled 330,000. Shipment of the defaced coins to Korea began in fulfillment of a request made in August, 1897, by the president of the First Bank of Korea. Count Matsukata on Oct. 21 ordered the Bank of Japan to obtain 30,000 stamped yens from the Osaka Government Treasury and to deliver them to the First Bank at once for forwarding to its branch at Jinsen (Chemulpo), Korea.

The stamped yen were to be exchanged at par value for undefaced ones circulating in Korea, and the unstamped yen thus obtained were to be sent back from time to time to the Osaka Branch of the Bank of Japan. Expenses involved in the transaction were to be paid by the government.

Subsequent shipments of stamped coins were made as requested by the First Bank, until a total of 330,000 had been sent to Korea.

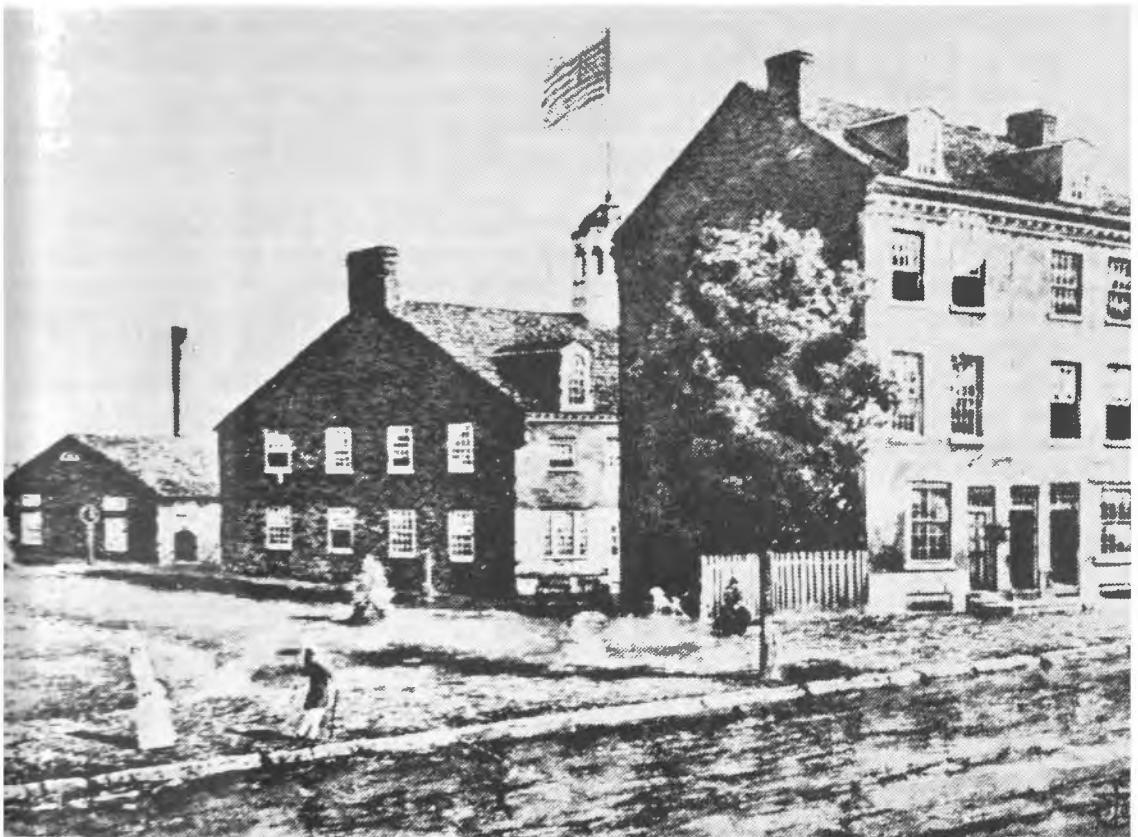
The army of occupation at Wei-hai-wei requested 50,000 yen in 1-yen silver coin in November, 1898. The government sent that amount in the stamped yen, a practice that was repeated as need arose. The total of stamped yen sent to Wei-hai-wei was 197,175. Wei-hai-wei, seaport and treaty port of N. Shantung, China, was occupied by the Japanese Army as guarantee for fulfillment of terms of the Chinese indemnity treaty of 1895.

The remainder of the stamped silver yen was sold or otherwise disposed of as follows: 1,069,825 coins were transferred to the mint bureau to be melted into subsidiary coins; 550,000 were transferred to and sold in Shanghai; 13,953,000 were transferred to and sold in Hongkong; and 2,250,000 were sold to foreign banks.

The coinage reform enabled the Japanese to avoid the bad effects of fluctuations in the price of silver.

The story of the stamped silver yen, present in crowns of the world, Japanese, Formosan, Korean and trade dollar collections, is a portion of the story of Japanese coinage reform at the close of the 19th Century.

UNITED STATES



UNITED STATES

The story of American money, which occupies a period of about three centuries, began when the early settlers in New England carried on their fur trade with the Indians through the use of wampum, which had been fashioned from mussel shells in the form of "beads." The immigrants had little use for coined money at first, but when traders arrived from foreign lands, coins were usually demanded in payment for goods. Foreign coins were usually accepted, such as French louis, English guineas, German thalers, Dutch ducats and various Spanish coins.

The first coins in America were minted by John Hull in the Massachusetts Bay Colony. In 1652 the Boston mint provided the famous N.E. pine tree shillings, with their fractional parts.

The United States started its coinage system in 1782. Throughout the Colonial years, Americans had become accustomed to the use of the Spanish dollar and its fractional parts. It was natural that when a national coinage was under consideration the dollar was mentioned most frequently. The Grand Committee in May 1785 recommended a gold five-dollar piece; a dollar of silver with fractional coins, of the same metal, in denominations of half, quarter, tenth, and twentieth parts of a dollar; and copper pieces valued at one-hundredth and one two-hundredths of a dollar.

COMMEMORATIVES

By DWIGHT A. SAFFORD, San Diego

The position occupied by commemoratives in United States coinage is largely due to the fact that with few exceptions, they are the only coins of the United States that have a real historical significance. Progress and the advance of the people of our land are presented in an interesting and instructive manner, artistically presenting a record of the facts. These special coins have been issued either to commemorate certain events, or to help pay for celebrations or monuments that commemorate historical persons, places or things, and sold at a price in excess of their face value.

Of this series of coins, one of the most artistic and historical pieces would be the **CONNECTICUT TERCENTENARY** half dollar, issued to commemorate the 300th anniversary of the founding of the Colony of Connecticut. The work on the design of the coin was a PWA project, and was executed by Henry G. Kreiss under the general direction of Paul Man-ship in Essex, Conn., from the original painting by Brownell in 1856.

The "Charter Oak" is the main device on the obverse and nothing in Connecticut could have been more appropriately selected than the Charter Oak. In June 1633, standing under the branches of this tree with a hole in its side, the chief of the Pequot Indian tribe sold "Dutch Point" and much of what is now the city of Hartford to Jacob Van Curler for a bolt of woolen cloth, six kettles, six axes, eighteen knives and a pair of shears.

Based on a voyage of John Cabot in 1497, the English claimed most of North America so that when the Mo-hican Indians recommended the fertile valley of the Connecticut River to the settlers of the Massachusetts Colony, the Rev. Thomas Hooker, with a band of pilgrims, traveled overland and established the town of Hartford. Under the same oak tree, the Hooker Company bought the same property of Sequassen, chief of the River Islands, for a consignment of coats, blankets, knives and hoes; and agreed as a condition of the Bill of Sale nev-

er to cut down the old Oak Tree where the Indians for generations had conducted their tribal ceremonies.

There was never any question about the priority of the Dutch Settlement in their House of Hope, but rather their right to the preemption. In 1638, New Haven was settled by another company of emigrants from England. The first constitution was adopted in 1639, being the first time in history when a government was organized and defined by a written constitution. Its leading features were afterward copied in the constitution of the other states and of the United States, and it was the basis of the Charter of 1662.

James II sent Sir Edmond Andros to become governor of the Colony of Connecticut. He announced in the Provincial Council on the night of Oct. 31 - Nov. 1, 1687, his instructions to confiscate the Charter and to rule the Colony by decree. Suddenly the candles were extinguished. When they were relit, it was discovered that the Charter and Joseph Wadsworth had disappeared. He had run out, and had hidden the Charter in the bosom of the great old Oak Tree.

Now, a certain George Wyllys decided to leave England, and to join the Hooker Company. He sent William Gibbons and twenty men, and the framework of a large house to occupy the land assigned to him. This chanced to include the celebrated old Oak Tree, whose existence had been guaranteed in the original transfer of the land. It was Ruth, the daughter of Wyllys, who finally in 1689 divulged the hiding place of the Charter. Before the turn of the century the copy of the Charter which had been retained in England was sent over by William III. Both copies are now in the Connecticut Historical Society and the State Library Archives, and are on display quite often.

The Charter Oak was blown down in August 1856, when its age was computed to have been nearly one thousand years.



UNACCEPTED, UNLOVED, UNDERRATED

The United States Half Cent

By WILLIAM R. WEBER, San Jose

No other early United States coin can claim to have received the "rough go" treatment experienced by the half cent.

Unpopular as a currency and unaccepted by banks, this stepchild also was abused by its parent and manufacturer, through use of Talbot Allum & Lee and misstruck large cent planchets.

Today it seldom is collected in series and traditionally has taken a distant back seat to the large cent. Walter Breen and the type collector are principally responsible for what popularity the denomination presently enjoys.

To tell its complete story is not my intention. I wish merely to acquaint the reader with some of the interesting background of this humble coin.

The half cent (with the cent) has the distinction of being the first coin struck by this country in 1793, and the first to be abolished in 1857. An orphan, unduly neglected from infancy, the half cent was seldom in demand for change and was never given legal tender status.

This article is assembled from information related to the half cent which has appeared in various monographs, catalogs and trade journals. A book on the U. S. Half Cent writ-

ten by Walter Breen will be published at some future date. Originally scheduled for publication about 1955, its release to the numismatic fraternity is still pending. When it does appear it will be far more complete and important than anything in print at this time.

The most current and still available reference is Ebenezer Gilbert's book, **United States Half Cents**. All classifications in this article will be by Gilbert number, for while errors do exist in his book, it is available and the text is, with few exceptions, reliable where the plates are not.

An outstanding reference recommended for all collectors interested in the story of our early copper coinage is Dr. William H. Sheldon's **Early American Cents** or his more recent **Penny Whimsy**.

It is hoped this article will be of interest and service to those who do or might like to include half cents as a part of their collections. One may choose to collect a few pieces to show the types, a date series, or he may "shoot the moon," seeking a complete collection by varieties. For the latter I have an affection, for I have been on the "stuff" for some time and doubt that I could "kick the habit."

Our subject was first conceived by a Grand Committee in May 1785. The Grand Committee, composed of one member from each of the 13 states, was assembled to consider Thomas Jefferson's proposed plan for our new country's coinage. Jefferson felt our country should have a decimal coinage, consisting of a gold 10 units or dollars, a silver unit or dollar, a half dollar or five tenths, a fifth or pistareen, a tenth or bit, a twentieth or half bit, and a copper hundredth. The committee, upon evaluating Jefferson's plan, abolished the fifth or pistareen, replacing it with the quarter dollar, and added a second copper coin, the two hundredth.

At this period of our history the country and the committee were quite concerned over the matter of copper coins in circulation. The committee hoped that the hundredth would replace the "base British half pence" and stop "the commerce in the vile coin" which was estimated to cost the country \$30,000 annually. To make our copper coins of good value the hundredth was to weigh 131 grains and the two hundredth, we can assume, would weigh 65½ grains, being half the value.

In July 1785, Congress formally adopted the plan presented by Jefferson and amended by the Grand Com-

In April 1790, the House of Representatives directed Alexander Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury, to prepare a plan for a mint. Hamilton returned a comprehensive report in January 1791, outlining his ideas on the subject. As to copper coins in particular, Hamilton's aversion to "debasement" was apparent. His recommendation for the half cent and the cent was to double that weight suggested by the Grand Committee. He felt the increase necessary, for he estimated it would "about correspond with the value of the copper and the expense of coinage." While admitting the coins would be inconveniently large (the half cent would have been one-third the size of the dollar), Hamilton's proposal was accepted.

Just prior to the first regular minting operations of our nation, Congress passed an amendment setting the weight of the half cent at 104 grains. No half cent patterns are known, but the pattern Birch Cent of 1792 is of the size and weight proposed by Hamilton. It is interesting to compare plates of it and the regular issue 1793 cents to see what Hamilton's proposal would have been, and possibly why Congress effected the reduction in size.

We now enter the period of actual coinage operations by the first U. S.



SECOND TYPE, 1794. GILBERT 9

mittee. It appointed a Board of Treasury composed of two members, entrusting them with the responsibility for working out a plan for the new mint. It was the Board of Treasury which substituted "half cent" for "two hundredth." Congress did not act upon the Board of Treasury's recommendation for some four and a half years.

Mint in Philadelphia. Information on the number of half cents struck is taken from Page 6 of *The United States Minor Coinages 1793-1916* by Walter Breen. Sheldon's rarity scale, R1-R8, and his quantitative scale for grading, will be used throughout.

COINAGE OF 1793: Quantity minted, 35,334; weight, 104 grains; edge let-

tered two hundred for a dollar. Four different varieties exist. All are listed in Gilbert and in the Crosby monograph. Only year of the type and as such is in demand by type, date and variety collectors. Of the four varieties listed, none is common. Gilbert 1 and 2 are most generally seen and they are both rarity 4 (very scarce). In fact, all 1793-1797 half cents are

employees tried to avoid any unnecessary expense for new copper for this unpopular denomination. There also are a large number of Gilbert 5, plain edge, no pole, that are overstruck on rolled down Talbot, Allum & Lee tokens of 1794 and 1795.

On March 3, 1795, the copper coinage provisions of the law of 1792 again were amended. The President



1795, G5, PLAIN EDGE, THICK PLANCHET

becoming increasingly difficult to find in fine or better condition.

COINAGE OF 1794: Quantity minted, 81,600; weight, 104 grains; lettered edge. The edge for this year comes with both large and small letters. The earlier issues of the year have the large, and the later issues the smaller. Gilbert 9 has both the large (common) and small (rare) edge letters. The 1794 is generally the easiest date to obtain for the type collector seeking a lettered edge type coin. Gilbert lists nine varieties for this date with no new dies or die combinations reported.

COINAGE OF 1795: Quantity minted, lettered edge, 25,600; plain edge, 109,000. Weight lettered edge, 104 grains; plain edge, 84 grains. Gilbert shows eight varieties for this year, but one is believed listed in error. His No. 2 is thought to be a mutilated coin with the edge lettering removed. Included in the above plain edge quantity are several Gilbert 6s and possibly three Gilbert 5s struck on thick planchets. These thick planchets most likely were spoiled or misstruck large cents that were cut down to half cent size, but not to the correct thickness, and delivered to the presses for restriking into half cents. This occurred again in later years as mint em-

was empowered to reduce the weight of copper coins whenever it would be "for the benefit of the United States." Congress did put a restraining clause in the amendment, forbidding a reduction of more than 24 grains to the half cent. Not until December 1795 did President Washington act to reduce the weight of the half cent, this time to 84 grains. This action was deemed necessary as the Government was sustaining a loss of about 22 per cent on the heavier weight coinage. The reduction was estimated to cut this loss to approximately 5½ per cent. The punctuated date varieties for this year are all from the same obverse die and the appearance of the comma-like mark on the coins is from a break in the die.

COINAGE OF 1796: Quantity minted, 6,480; two varieties, Gilbert 1 (with pole), Gilbert 2 (without pole); plain edge; weight 84 grains. The 1796 half cent is the most expensive in all grades of condition, although second to the 1831 in quantity minted for circulation. Both varieties are very rare; there probably are not more than a dozen of the rarest variety known. Beware of electrotypes for this year.

COINAGE OF 1797: Quantity minted, 120,215; five varieties, four are listed

by Gilbert, who omitted the Grippled Edge variety; plain, lettered, and gripped edge; weight 84 grains. Three of the five varieties are from the same pair of obverse and reverse dies; the unlisted gripped edge, Gilbert 1 (lettered edge) and Gilbert 2 (plain edge).

A large number of the Gilbert 4, 1 over 1 variety, are known struck on

extremely rare 1802/0 with reverse of 1800. The new Draped Bust obverse design is standard through 1808, but the reverse die is most similar to those used in the 1795-1797 coinage. The 1800 coins are not too difficult to obtain in condition of dark AU 55, but are rare with original mint red.

COINAGE OF 1802/0: Quantity minted, 14,366; two varieties, both



1797, G3. STRUCK OVER TALBOT ALLUM & LEE TOKEN

Talbot, Allum & Lee tokens. In this same variety, the perfect or unbroken obverse die is more difficult to obtain than the broken or late state of die. Breen classifies the gripped and lettered edge coins as probably experimental pieces which were released into circulation.

A point worth mentioning on the detection of electrotypes: They can be found in the years 1793, 1796 and 1802, particularly. Proofs of the 1840s also are rife with these phonies. Whenever in doubt, and even if you are not, it is worth the few moments to check when laying out the "long green" for an expensive piece. Simply place the coin in question on the tip of the finger and tap the edge gently with another coin of the same metal. If the coin is genuine, it will give off a clear bell-like ring of fairly long duration. If an electro, it will have little more than a "clink," a particularly sickening sound when you have been showing off the "cherry" you just acquired from that big "pigeon" in the bourse.

COINAGE OF 1800: Quantity minted, 211,530. The 84 grains weight and the plain edge remain standard for this and all succeeding regular issues through 1857. This is the only year of this type except for the

listed by Gilbert—the above mentioned G 2 and the commoner but very scarce G 1. This year is notable in that it is the most difficult of all in which to find half cents in better than fine condition. Breen says this is because the entire issue was struck on planchets of rolled down, misstruck large cents, a few of which retain the undertype of the large cent. The obverse die used for 1802 originally was intended for use in 1800, was not needed, and was adapted to 1802 by stamping or recutting a 2 over the last cipher. A factor responsible in part for this expediency was the agitation from many sources to abolish the mint.

Investigations into mint expenses and efficiency perhaps were responsible for the bills initiated in 1800 and again in 1802 which proposed that the nation's coinage needs could be met better by private contract in either this country or in England. Cooler heads prevailed and the mint continued, but the coins tell quite clearly the attitude of the harassed mint personnel. The employees were working long hours with little pay, and tenure was likely to be terminated at any time.

The annual yellow fever epidemic was responsible for closure of the mint in the summers of 1797, '98, '99

and 1803, generally for the entire months of September and October. The people working in this climate of uncertainty understandably would resort to using substandard and salvaged planchets, striking them with imperfect and shattered dies. There was overstriking, double striking and planchet clipping. Workers probably employed these measures whenever possible to save time or expense and improve job security.

COINAGE OF 1803: Quantity minted, 381,900; four varieties, all listed by Gilbert. Breen includes an unknown quantity of 1804 G 6s in the number minted. As the G 6 is a rarity 4 coin, it does not add a large number to the above total. Only one variety of this year is really rare, that being the G 4.

COINAGE OF 1804: Quantity minted, 1,465,776; crosslet 4 obverse, 771,312; plain 4 obverse, 694,464; 12 varieties known, 11 listed by Gilbert. This year is a fertile one for the variety and type collector. By combining the plain and crosslet four, the stem and stemless reverse, and the spike chin obverse, he can get five different die combinations. The 1795 is next with the plain and lettered edge, with and without pole, and with punctuated date—four combinations.

The commonest of all the early (1793-1811) half cents is the plain 4,

stemless reverse, G 2. The rugged stemless wreath reverse occurs over a three-year period in four varieties, and where it appears in the 1805 and 1806 coinage is the most common in those years. The variety not listed in Gilbert is a marriage of the G 6 obverse and G 10 reverse, a rarity 8 coin.

COINAGE OF 1805: Quantity minted, 120,000; four varieties, all listed by Gilbert. Two seldom found varieties of this year exist in the small 5 with stems.

To him who is offered these coins, there is a ready reference available to insure that he is not buying the common large 5 with stems. On all large 5 coins, an obverse die break from the lowest curl through the 1 in date to the lower half of the 8 is always present.

COINAGE OF 1806: Quantity minted, 794,000; three varieties, all listed by Gilbert. The Gilbert plate coin for the small 6 with stems is in error, showing the obverse of the small 6, stemless wreath reverse. The text is correct, though, and no confusion should exist in distinguishing between the small and large 6 with stems coins. The large 6 with stems is frequently offered in spotted or discolored mint state from a hoard discovered in 1906 by Chapman.



1802, G1, WITH AND WITHOUT UNDERTYPE OF LARGE CENT



The First U.S. Mint

COINAGE OF 1807: 38,000 minted; 1 variety, listed in Gilbert. The same reverse was used for this year as for the 1806 G 3 (large 6 with stems). While not a rare date, it is rarely seen well struck or in mint state. Only a few are known with sharp lettering and clear denticles. On all others of 1807, lettering and date appear to be recessed into the planchet (see plate). Die injury may have been responsible for this condition, as it would seem normal die wear would not have produced such a large number of low relief coins. Yet, oddly, the reverse wreath of this year is generally clearer than that of the 1806 issue.

COINAGE OF 1808: 400,000 minted; 3 varieties. Gilbert lists one overdate (G 1), and two normal date obverses (G2 and 3) all having the same reverse. The experts say it should be one normal date and overdate with the same reverse die, and the overdate obverse with a newly discovered and extremely rare reverse die. The re-engraved obverse listed by Gilbert (his No. 3) apparently has never been seen or verified.

COINAGE OF 1809: 1,154,572 minted; 6 varieties, 5 listed by Gilbert. This

is the first year of the Turban or Classic Head obverse and a new wreath reverse without the fraction $1/200$ used on all reverses up to this time. Two overdates are known: the popular but common 1809/6 and the very scarce small o inside large O. In this date the collector will find a comparatively good selection of nice condition coins from which to choose. The extremely rare unlisted variety has the G 3 obverse and a new reverse listed by Breen.

COINAGE OF 1810: 215,000 minted; 1 variety, listed by Gilbert. Breen says "Possibly only 10,000 of those issued were dated 1810." The remainder probably bear the date 1809. This is another year, like that of 1807, which is difficult to obtain in choice condition, though generally it is found better struck.

COINAGE OF 1811: 63,140 minted; 2 varieties, listed in Gilbert, a date much scarcer than the number struck would indicate. In July 1811, the Director of the Mint stopped coinage of the denomination, as demand for the half cent was practically non-existent. A large number of this date presumably were held in the Mint to be used as alloy for gold and silver

coinage. The rare G 2 of this year sometimes is found with a heavy obverse die break connecting the first four stars on the left. Coinage of "early date" half cents came to an end in 1811.

Almost from its initial appearance, the half cent was given a cool reception. The public had little use for the coin; merchants and banks in par-

coins and melt them down to suit their particular needs.

To determine the approximate number of half cents still available, the reader is referred to a monograph by Walter Breen in *Coin Collector's Journal* No. 159, "Silver Coinage of the Philadelphia Mint 1794-1916": "It has long been an intuitively obvious principle that something about the



1807, G1, WEAK AND WELL-STRUCK SPECIMENS

ticular were not at all pleased with this denomination, overwhelmingly preferring the large cent. It was, as Jefferson had predicted, a coin that would perform little if any public service. The lobbying of Robert Morris and Hamilton succeeded in selling Congress on the denomination, but neglected to foresee public indifference. Hamilton is said to have expressed the desirability of having a half cent on the grounds that this small coin would "enable the poor to buy cheaply and therefore labor for less" (a union man to the core). It was principally in the rural areas that the half cent found its most favorable though limited acceptance. Another consideration which may have had a bearing on the half cent's popularity was the method by which it was distributed from the Mint. According to Carothers, copper was not a common metal in this country and was imported principally from England. It was Treasury custom to send casks of newly minted half cents to the various Government offices for distribution. At times the market price of copper rose to a point where copper coins were worth more as metal than as coin; when this occurred, industrial concerns needing copper would buy the casks of copper

rarity of a coin can be deduced from the number minted, the obvious exceptions being coins of which hoards have been found or which were saved in quantity as first year of issue, and coins on which destructive forces have acted to an inordinate extent. Making the assumption that extant examples of any denomination, with the above exceptions, form a representative random sample of the original mintage, we arrive at a 'natural law' of American numismatics; in most of the early years of a given denomination, the ratio Number Extant: Number Coined is approximately constant. Each denomination has its own characteristic percentage. For half-cents, 1793-1811, except 1800 and 1806 of which hoards were found, about 0.7% of the original mintage remains in collectors' hands."

Breen's estimate verifies what many half cent collectors have suspected for some time, and will serve to alert a newcomer as to what is in store for him. The large cent collector has a much easier row to hoe in relation to coins available, as more than 19 times as many large cents as half cents were minted 1793-1857, and the ratio extant is at least five times greater. This favorable situation is tempered somewhat by the greater

number of large cent to half cent collectors.

To anyone interested in pursuing these humble coppers may I offer this suggestion. Get all the information you can locate on the coin. Much information exists that is not presented in this article. One can do himself a service by doing some research on his own and make his "cherry picking" an easier task. A list of some of the publications with information on the half cent is provided at the end of this article. Books, monographs, articles and catalogs I have found particularly interesting and helpful are included, most of which are easily obtained. Many exist which I have not seen, the Alvord sale by Chapman being an example. Walter Breen is the acknowledged "Big Daddy" for information on the half cent. When his book appears it probably will be recommended reading for everyone interested in U. S. numismatics, and required reading for all half cent collectors.

COINAGE OF 1825-1835: Quantities minted are same as those listed in the Guide Book. No new varieties reported; all are listed by Gilbert. There is only one really rare year (1831) in this series of late dates; all other years are relatively common. There are a few varieties in this group that

many are found in varying degrees of AU with edge nicks, carbon spots, and discoloration disregarded by the seller. Even worse are the dipped, stripped, or cyanided coins offered as brilliant uncirculated GEMS. It is principally for this reason that I suggest that you know the seller to avoid the disappointment that comes with receiving this type of misrepresented material. The reputable dealer will list the defects and will give you a fair shake and no "whoopie doo" on refunding your money if you are not satisfied with his offering.

The "big gun" in this date group, and rarest date of all the half cents struck for circulation, is the 1831. Why the Red Book continues to list this in proof only, and, by doing so, infers that it belongs to the proof only coinage, is hard to understand. Unlike the 1836, this year was struck for circulation in very low quantity (2200). The only possible reason for the 1831 being considered a proof-only year is that it is most frequently offered in proof (with reverse of 1836). There probably are a half-dozen known in VG to VF condition, with a like number in uncirculated and (original) proof, making it much rarer as a date than the highly touted 1796. Proofs are known for all but two years in this group, those being



1811, G2, EARLY AND LATE STATES OF DIE

are not easily found in choice condition. The 1828 12-star variety (G 3) is one that is sometimes offered in AU with mint luster, but is really rare in choice mint state. The 1828 is most common, and the 1835 next, as years most frequently found in uncirculated condition. Among those dates offered in this group, not too many are really choice uncirculated;

1825 and 1826. The three commonest (R 5 - R 6) dates in proof are 1833, 1834 and 1835.

COINAGE OF 1849-1857: Quantities minted are same as those listed in the Guide Book. The Coronet Head or Braided Hair type, adopted in 1840 for the proof-only coinage, completes the types and writes an end to the half cent coinage. While lower in

mintage than the preceding Classic Head, it is easier to obtain in mint state. The 1857 would rate second highest in rarity in uncirculated condition by its catalog price, but the 1850 is more difficult to obtain in that condition. There are two reverses for the 1850, 1954 and 1856 coins issued for circulation. The new and rare reverse is difficult to deter-

seller is aware of his merchandise and will state that it is an electro. But some don't know fair from foul and here the collector can be unwittingly burned (but the pain's the same). Last year I was offered a date set of this group and what tickled me most was that they were offered as "genuine electrotypes." I sincerely hope that the day is not here when



FINAL TYPE OF THE HALF CENT

mine and is identified by a rust pit in the die that appears as a lump on the top right of I in United. The proof coins issued in this type are of about the same rarity as are those of the Classic Heads, the commonest being 1856, with the 1854, 1855 and 1857 only a bit rarer.

PROOF ONLY COINAGE: Originals and Restrikes of 1836, 1840-1849 and 1852. This is the most challenging and difficult group of all half cents to assemble in all die combinations; by necessity, it is a section of limited appeal (but not desire) to the average collector. The low number of coins available in this group results in asking prices that quickly separate the haves from the have nots. If we include the two restrikes of 1831 and one each of 1856 and 1857, we can assemble a total of 40 pieces that probably would cost more than \$7500, if they could be obtained at all. All coins in this group are at least R 6 (13 to 30 available) and are generally offered in proof. Those few that have been circulated or mishandled are offered in VF or EF but most often at prices which hardly cause one to dash off a check by the next mail. Here, too, is the most fertile area of the electrotype copy, so be forewarned and cautious, for some of the copies are very difficult to distinguish from the genuine. Most often the

we will be expected to distinguish the "phony" phonies from the "genuine" phonies. Deliver me, please.

While on the subject, let's cover the restrike and determine its status. A restrike is a coin struck in a year (generally much later and technically a forgery) other than that on the coin, from genuine dies or dies extremely similar to those regularly used. Some were struck under semi-official auspices, others without mint knowledge, but all primarily were intended for numismatic purposes. It is said that many of the restrikes struck were used as swapping material by the Mint with well-known collectors of the 1860s and 1870s for coins that the Mint wanted for its collection. All of the half cent restrikes are very rare, some much rarer than the originals. Many consider the 1804 silver dollar, the "transitional pattern" dimes and half dimes among others, as having originated for this purpose. The copper-nickel restrikes (by the Mint) conclude this special series. The copper-nickel half cents of 1854 and 1856 are really trial pieces struck to show the appearance of the copper-nickel alloy proposed for the small cent coinage. The striking of the 1854 coins is believed to have occurred in error (only 2 known) in 1856. The 1856 issue exceeded 50 pieces, both years struck with regular issue dies.

Our Lowly Penny

By LESLEY G. LODGE, San Francisco

Before I hear a scream go up from some of my readers, let me say that I do know the correct name of this coin is the "One Cent" piece. However, I usually refer to it as a "Penny," and so do the majority of people, including those who may scream the loudest as to this wrong name. Also, have you ever noticed that many of the wrappers for fifty of these coins read "Pennies"?

Our National Mint was established in 1792 in Philadelphia, and the first pennies were minted the following year. With exception of 1815, they have been minted each year since.

souri, in 1826, ran away from the saddle maker to whom he was apprenticed—and the official reward for his capture was One Cent! Was the one-cent piece actually that valuable? Or, did the saddle maker figure that Kit was worth only one copper?

Let us see what the one-cent piece would buy in those early days. The employees of the National Mint, in the late 1790s, received on the average nine cents per hour in wages. Ferry boats or barges in the Indiana, Illinois, Michigan area in the early 1800s charged one or two cents for their services. In January 1814, Abi-



Most of us are familiar with the large size copper cents which were minted until 1857, with the Liberty bust figure on obverse. There are various publications available which adequately describe these coins in detail as to the various heads, upright dates, slanting dates, stemless wreaths, etc. I will not go into that in this article, other than to mention that there are many varieties of this coin. Of particular interest and humor is the terminology used to describe some of the designs of Liberty—such as "Booby Head" and "Silly Head." I wonder who first thought of these terms?

These pennies were quite large, about the size of our present fifty-cent piece—and their purchasing value in those days undoubtedly was considerable. In fact, I read recently in one of Ripley's "Believe It or Not" articles that Kit Carson, the famous scout, as a boy of 17 in Franklin, Mis-

jah Yates, a Wilmington, Del., cigar maker, was selling his "common segars" at 200 for fifty cents, or four for one cent; and his higher grade segars sold at two for one cent. In later years, about 1840 to 1855, a skein of thread or silk and a "lacer" cost two cents; lisle edged dress material was four cents per yard; one and one-third cups of salt could be bought for one cent; and eggs were five to ten cents for one dozen.

So, what was Kit actually worth to the saddle maker?

Then in 1856 came an economy wave, as the cost of making and distributing these large size copper cents had risen to a high figure. The Mint Director reported that they "barely paid expenses". So in 1857 the coinage of these large cents ceased, and likewise the coinage of their small brother, the half-cent, was stopped. The new, revised penny was decreased drastically in size, and the Flying

Eagle, followed by the Indian Head and finally the Lincoln Cent, came into use.

The Flying Eagle cent is the shortest lived coin in our history, being issued in 1856 as a pattern, and in 1857 and 1858 as the standard issue cent. This coin was made of a composition of copper and nickel, the latter metal giving it a light colored appearance. A comparison of the flying eagle on this coin and the one on the Saint-Gaudens double-eagle of later years shows some similarity. I have not been able to ascertain from any source why this particular design of the cent did not continue for a longer period.



The Indian Head cent undoubtedly is one of the most popular of all our coins, with both collectors and non-collectors. Almost everyone seems to have a few of these coins stuck away in an old purse at home, and many of these people think they have a fortune in them; although it is very seldom they have one of the rarer dates. This coin had but a few changes on either the obverse or reverse during the fifty-one years it was minted. It is of interest to note that while the Branch Mint was established in San Francisco in 1854, it was not until 1908 that it turned out any pennies, and then only in limited quantities for many years. While the Denver Mint was established in 1906, it has no Indian Head cents to its credit. The Carson City and New Orleans Mints did not issue this coin.



What would this Indian Head cent buy in its day? Montgomery Ward and Company was established in 1872,

and its first catalog lists many interesting items. For only one hundred Indian Head cents (and wouldn't I like to have one hundred 1872 Indian Head cents now), one could purchase from them one hoop skirt, one bustle and one hair braid! Sears Roebuck's catalog of 1898 lists many items costing only a few cents—among them a foot tub for twenty-five cents; tin tea spoons six cents per dozen; and a steel-wire kitchen fork for three cents.

The Lincoln cent, our present issue coin, has been minted since 1909, with but a few changes. In 1959, a radical change was made when the reproduction of the Lincoln Memorial Building was placed on reverse. This cent may be classified as a "Memorial," or even a "Commemorative" type coin, inasmuch as it first appeared in 1909, the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of this great American; likewise on the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of his birth, the change on reverse, was made.

This Lincoln cent in its earlier days had considerable purchasing power, as two or three of them would buy the daily newspaper, a good cigar, and as advertised in the September 1915 "Numismatist" ten of them would buy from a New York dealer one of the early issue large cents. However, today, this poor, lowly coin will buy practically nothing—and is used mostly for sales taxes, parking meters and for quoting and the purchasing of articles with "come-on" prices of 98¢, \$2.97, etc.

In the San Francisco area, in the early days, pennies were used mainly to buy newspapers, penny postals, and candy for the children, and very seldom for anything else. Also, some cheap-skates would put one or two of them in the church collection plate. (No doubt they clicked as loudly as silver coins did, if dropped the last few inches!) My grandmother used to tell the story that when she was first married and lived in Berkeley, about 1880, she saw a woman hand the street car (probably a horse car) conductor five pennies for the fare. The conductor indignantly threw them out into the street and said: "Lady, we do not use pennies out here!" As I remember it, the story did not tell whether she then rode free or had to dig up a "real" coin to pay her fare.

Likewise, my mother has told me that about the turn of the century, when she was a girl, if an article in a store was priced at 2/25¢, a person

knew that one of them would cost 15¢ - never 13¢, as today.

The first reference I can find to any items costing less than five cents, other than those mentioned earlier in this article, is a 1915 menu of the Crystal Cafeteria, San Francisco, which lists hot corn bread or tea biscuits at 2¢ an order.

This lack of use of this coin by Westerners is borne out by the fact that this one cent denomination was not minted by the San Francisco Mint until 1908, and by the Denver Mint until 1911; Philadelphia being able to supply the entire country. (However, one should keep in mind that in the early 1800s a considerable number

of foreign copper coins circulated on our East Coast.)

Of interest are the following statistics as to our population and the mintage of the penny:

Year	Population	Pennies Minted
1810	7,200,000	1,458,500
1860	31,400,000	20,566,000
1910	91,900,000	152,846,218
1960	179,300,000	2,167,349,000

From which it can be seen that while the value of the penny has decreased greatly in purchasing power, it does take a far greater number per person to take care of our present day needs.



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AN UNFORTUNATE COIN

The Sorrowful History of the Columbian Half Dollar

The order of Secretary Carlisle to use the Columbian souvenir coins as cash, is the closing chapter in the history of an unsuccessful venture.

In spite of the efforts of the promoters of the exposition to sell these half dollars at double their face value, with the general cooperation of the banks,

the newspapers and a number of leading stores in Chicago, New York, Boston, Philadelphia and elsewhere, about 3,600,000 remain unsold and in the hands of the treasury authorities.

At first the Chicago people pleaded with Secretary Carlisle to hold the coins till they could raise a fund to redeem them at their double price, in the hope of saving the value of those already sold, which would be bound to decline as soon as the remaining coins were thrown into the ordinary channels of trade. This was done, but the attempt was fruitless, and a few days ago the projectors of the scheme notified the secretary that they could not do anything, and that they would not ask him any longer to carry the load of unavailable silver.

Mr. Carlisle shrewdly decided to do something which would make the coins pay for a part of the trouble

that a leading American jeweler, while on a journey abroad, saw some of the British souvenir coins struck in honor of Queen Victoria's jubilee, beautifully decorated with enamel and mounted as watch charms, brooches, etc. He took a number of Columbian half dollars to London with him last year and had them treated in the same way.

One device was to cover all the body of the obverse of the coin with translucent enamel, leaving the head of Columbus and the inscription uncovered. In another, the reverse side was treated, the caravel being colored on the field against which it was projected. No two designs were alike, and the coins were eagerly snapped up at \$5, \$8 and even \$10 a piece by curiosity seekers.

But, no sooner was the formal proposition made to take the 100,000 coins out of the custody of the treasury for



and delay they had caused. So he ordered them to be paid out at par, but in exchange for gold coin. This would have the effect, he believed, of stimulating a few enterprising retail shop-keepers to buy up the lot and advertise that they would use them in making change for their customers. The treasury by this means would add a little gold to its balance, while at the same time the coins probably would be held as souvenirs by the customers attracted by the advertisements, and thus would be prevented from passing into general circulation.

The collapse of the souvenir coin fad recalls the fact that a syndicate was formed during the summer of 1893 for the taking and disposing of 100,000 of the half dollars. Some large jewelry houses were interested in the enterprise, which might have grown to larger proportions if any encouragement had been received. It seems

the purpose mentioned, than the secret service people pounced upon the interested parties and warned them that every coin thus treated and exposed for sale would be seized.

No law against the mutilation of coins appeared to stand in the way; but the argument of Chief Drummond, as well as it could be understood, was that some evil-minded person might scrape off the enamel from the decorated coins and pass them upon unsuspecting poor persons, who would then find themselves with a coin in their possession bearing on its face the value of fifty cents, but on account of its mutilation commanding in the market only its bullion value, which, with silver at its present depreciation, would be only a quarter of a dollar. The opposition of Chief Drummond, supported by Secretary Carlisle, broke up the plan. — Reprint from the *Washington Star*, 1895.



The American Trade Dollar

By MRS. HARRY CUTLER, San Francisco

Most of the older American coins have a fascinating history, and I think should be brought out for the benefit of the younger generation, and for ourselves, too.

For quite some time I desired to write about the Trade Dollar, because so often when I wanted to know certain things about this coin, I found a little here and a little there, but never all the facts together. I, therefore, have made an effort to assemble certain important points in this article, so that it might help some future reader. Maybe some day a more complete story will be told.

A surprisingly large number of Americans today have never heard of the American Trade Dollar, and many who have seen it assume it is an early issue standard dollar. Nevertheless, the legend Trade Dollar on it makes it obvious that there is a difference.

In 1873 the last of the standard Liberty Seated dollars were minted, and the same year the first of the Trade Dollars were struck. In the Catalogue of Coins, Tokens and Medals, published by the Treasury Department in 1912, under Pattern Pieces are descriptions of the Trade Dollar pat-

terns submitted by Longacre, W. Barber, Bailey, and Bailey & Barber. The record does not state which one was selected, but the pattern by W. Barber appears to have been the one used. The great similarity between his pattern and the actual coin allows little room for any other conclusion.

William Barber was the fifth engraver to the United States mint in Philadelphia. He was born in London, May 2, 1807. In 1865 Barber was employed as assistant to J. B. Longacre, chief engraver at the mint and on the death of Longacre, January 1869, he was appointed chief engraver, and continued in this capacity until his death Aug. 31, 1879. His son, Charles E. Barber, then was appointed engraver to fill the vacancy caused by his father's death. Besides much original work on pattern coins, William Barber also produced more than 40 medals, public and private. The work on all of them was creditable, but a considerable number are very superior specimens of art. An example of this is the American Trade Dollar, a remarkably beautiful coin in every detail, and though resembling in some aspects the Liberty Seated dollars,

there is a great difference in the entire design.

The obverse, or front, of the Trade Dollar has the figure of a seated woman, representing Liberty, facing full to the left. With bare neck, arms and feet, she wears the long classic garment known as the Greek chiton. Her hair hangs long, but with sides held to the back with what appears to be a cluster of curled puffs. On her head is a small diadem, a symbol of regal dignity and power. In her extended right hand is an olive branch, and in her left hand, which hangs by her side, is an open scroll with the word LIBERTY. Thirteen stars form a semicircle near the upper border, six stars on the left and seven on the right of the figure. The woman is seated on a bale of merchandise, by the sea. Behind and against the bale of goods is a sheaf of wheat. Beneath the bale is a scroll inscribed IN GOD WE TRUST. Below this, in bold large numbers, is the date. There is a small reeded border on both obverse and reverse. In mint language this border is called "upsetting the edge." The coin also has a reeded edge, often erroneously called a "milled" edge.

The reverse of this Trade Dollar has an eagle without shield, facing front with wings out-spread, and with head turned to right. There are three arrows in the right claw or talon, and an olive branch in the left. At the top of the coin is the legend UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. Between this and the eagle is a scroll with the words E PLURIBUS UNUM, and below the eagle is the statement — 420 grains, 900 fine. At the bottom in large letters are the words TRADE DOLLAR.

In contrast with the standard dollar, which weighed 412½ grains, the Trade Dollar was made to weigh 420 grains, with a fineness of 900. This means that it had one part alloy and nine parts pure silver, thus providing a coin comparable to the Mexican peso in quality and weight.

It is sometimes assumed by the layman that our coins always have had the inscription IN GOD WE TRUST on them, but this is not the case. Credit for adoption of the inscription goes to Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury during the Lincoln administration. In 1864, when the Civil

War had stirred up a great religious sentiment in the country, this inscription was legalized on our coins. The motto E PLURIBUS UNUM (out of many, one) first appeared on the half eagle of 1795, as copied from the Great Seal of the United States. Since then some of our coins did not have this motto, but it is conspicuous on the Peace dollar.

Trade Dollars were struck in only three of the four mints operating at that time—Philadelphia, San Francisco and Carson City. None were struck in the New Orleans mint. The mintmark is indicated on each coin on the reverse below the eagle, either with no mark at all for Philadelphia, or an "S" for San Francisco, or a "CC" for Carson City. The San Francisco mint made the largest number of Trade Dollars, and Philadelphia the least.

The coins minted for circulation date from 1873 to 1878. Philadelphia mint struck a limited number in proof finish each year of issue, and continued making them after the regular issue was discontinued until 1885, but these were never made for circulation. They were intended for collectors only. There is some question regarding the proof coins of 1884 and 1885. Mint records do not report them at all, and it is thought by some collectors that they were the work of private individuals in the mint. These are very rare and sell at a very high premium.

When Trade Dollars were first issued they were declared legal tender in the United States to the extent of \$5, but due to the decline in the price of silver bullion Congress repealed the legal tender provision in 1876, and authorized the Treasury to limit coinage for export only. The gold dollar became the unit coin until 1878 when the legal tender provision was restored to the silver dollar, and the first of the Morgan dollars were struck, again weighing 412½ grains.

The purpose of the Trade Dollar was for commercial transactions in China at a time when the acceptable coin there was the Mexican peso, no doubt due to its high silver content. Since we did a great deal of buying in China and had been using the Mexican peso for trading, it was natural that they would want to be assured as to the quality of the new Trade Dollar.

At first the Chinese were dubious about the coin, but finally accepted it, possibly after a slight upward tilting of the price of the commodity, but each coin was carefully weighed and the quality of the silver appraised. Then it was stamped with a steel chopmark, so that the coin would bear their permanent stamp of approval. This process was called "schroffing" the coins, and the one appointed to do the job was called the "schrof." When, in the course of trade, it passed through their hands again, the process need not be repeated, thus saving themselves the extra work of re-examining them. The coin being reckoned only for its bullion value, they had no qualms over defacing it, and since each merchant had his own private chopmark they were often stamped again and again, as they passed through different hands, for they relied only on their own mark.

Now comes a new quirk to the situation. As might have been foreseen, some Trade Dollars eventually found their way into the hands of the enterprising seamen with a speculative penchant, who saw a chance to "put one over" on the folks at home. They could buy these dollars in the Orient for 40 cents each, and by passing them in the States on waterfront bartenders and shopkeepers for face value, could make a neat profit! This proved quite a remunerative side-line for the "boys who go down to the sea in ships"—but it was not so good for the saloonkeeper or the grocer who took them to the bank for deposit, for the banktellers were "flabbergasted" at their appearance and refused them!

At this point it was reasoned that the singular thing about this dollar was that here was a coin with the legend TRADE DOLLAR on it, yet one could do anything but trade with it. The depositors had assumed these coins to be legal tender, but they were being rejected at the banks. The many complaints reaching Washington, no doubt caused the government a national headache, until a ruling finally came through to the effect that the banks could accept them on the same basis that Uncle Sam sold them, namely 40 cents for 420 grains, 900 fine. However, the depositors protested, asking: "How can we accept 40 cents for a coin with a stamped value denoting it is one dollar?" Once more the government was in a quandry.

Politicians offered all kinds of nostrums but none solved the problem. Finally in February 1887, the coin being so unpopular at home, and not too popular abroad, the law authorizing Trade Dollars was repealed. Congress provided "that for a period of six months all Trade Dollars be exchanged for standard dollars," and the Treasury was authorized to redeem all Trade Dollars which were not mutilated. In recalling these 40 cent coins they were costing the government 60 cents more per coin. But thus it was that the controversial and comparatively short-lived Trade Dollars were discontinued, and no longer used in the channels of trade.

In recent years a surprising number of these coins have turned up from the Orient in uncirculated condition. How so many escaped the mutilating chopmark is a wonder. They were, no doubt, hoarded for many years by private Chinese families and others, and gradually have found their way into the hands of collectors. And a good thing it is too, for it is doubtful that any more American Trade Dollars will be coming out of old China, mainly due to their present change in government. Today, the value of the Trade Dollar, as a collector's item, has increased far beyond its original bullion value. Even the stamped ones are desirable, for some collectors are interested only in Trade Dollars with the different individual Chinese chopmarks on them. These not only make an interesting collection, but the oriental marks on the coin shall continue to be a reminder in the future of the original purpose of the American Trade Dollar.

Author's Note: After this article was written, the November 1961 issue of the *Numismatist* announced the publication of a new book entitled "The United States Trade Dollar" by John M. Willem, Jr. The book had a limited edition of 500 copies and the price is \$10.



THE UNION DIVIDED

By MILTON C. STRAUCH, Daly City

Although the Civil War (or as called by some, the War Between The States) grew out of several sectional issues, the germs of secession originated in the antagonisms and opposing theories of the founders of the American Republic. A growing division developed between the areas of industrial and commercial capital on one hand, and the areas of agricultural capitalism and the plantation system on the other.

Political conflict between these areas extended from the dispute of Missouri into the Union as a slave state, to the disposition of lands acquired from the Mexican War. Coincidentally with political conflict and economic divergence, there had existed a sharpening of emotional differences. Diverging political theories had introduced a growing strain between the increasingly democratic northern population, and the landed aristocrats who represented the South in national affairs. This strain, intensified by sectional economic rivalries, reached the breaking point in 1861.

Failure of the Buchanan administration to do anything constructive, to reduce friction or reconcile differences in the Democratic party, and

the resulting election of the Republican presidential candidate Abraham Lincoln, brought the secessionists to a point from which there could be no return. Either they must follow the road of union and peace, or that of secession and war. On Dec. 20, 1860 the South Carolina legislature passed an ordinance of secession from the "Union". Six other southern states followed with ordinances of secession—Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas.

On Feb. 1, 1861 delegates from these states met in Montgomery to form a government. They proclaimed a new nation—The Confederate States of America, and elected Jefferson Davis president.

Lincoln and the victorious Republicans came into office after having in the interval rejected all efforts to effect a compromise between the sections.

South Carolina opened the Civil War, April 12, 1861, by the firing on Fort Sumter. President Lincoln issued a call for troops to suppress unlawful "Combination", and proclaimed a blockade of the southern ports. The South understood Lincoln's proclamation to be a declaration of war; and soon afterwards Virginia,

Tennessee, North Carolina and Arkansas seceded. War had begun! There was an enormous disparity in the potential strength of the two belligerents—the North had twenty-two million inhabitants to the South's nine million.

The northwestern counties of Virginia had repudiated secession, and organized their own unionist government. The splinter state of West Virginia was recognized by the Federal government and admitted to the Union on June 20, 1863. West Virginia is the only state formed out of an existing state without consent of the older commonwealth.

The Secretary of the Treasury received authorization to contract loans and to issue bonds to help finance and increase revenues for the North. In the Confederacy, the absence of domestic manufacturing and the Federal blockade cut off an anticipated revenue from the customs houses; consequently they resorted to a direct tax by the states and drained most of the specie holdings from the southern banks. The Confederate government confiscated debts owed to northern creditors, and provided that such debts should be paid into the treasury which issued certificates to be cashed in specie at the end of the war.

In March 1861 the Confederacy began to issue paper currency and soon flooded the country with notes which bore the government's promise of redemption in specie at specified periods after the war. The rising tide of paper money drove coins out of circulation before long. Paper notes fluctuated wildly; and later depreciated greatly with the declining fortunes of the South.

Both sides spent the remainder of the year 1861 organizing their armies and girding their economies for war. Soon after the opening of 1862, active campaigns began in both the east and the west. In the west, the campaign centered in the upper Mississippi region, and included such victories as the fall of Nashville, the occupation of Memphis and the battle of Shiloh. Admiral Farragut's expedition captured New Orleans on April 24, 1862, thus closing the lower portion of the river to the Confederates.

The Confederate ship, the Merrimac, easily destroyed several Union vessels, and momentarily inspired the

Confederates with hope that the blockade could be lifted. On March 9, 1862 the Federal ship, the Monitor, met the Merrimac at Hampton Roads. A three hour engagement followed in which neither ship did much damage to the other, and each retired claiming victory. The engagement between these two warships was of far reaching importance; it proved the value and effectiveness of iron clad ships, and opened a new era in naval construction.

Although neither side could claim a victory, the battle of Antietam, Sept. 17, 1862, was one of the bloodiest single-day battles of the war. General Lee's men had lost ground, and General McClellan, by failing to renew the battle, lost his chance for a complete rout of the Confederates. A souvenir half dollar was struck in 1937 to commemorate the seventy-fifth anniversary of this battle for possession of Burnside Bridge. The opposing generals McClellan and Lee are featured on the obverse, while Burnside Bridge is shown on the reverse.

The Stone Mountain Memorial is a mammoth sculptural project which was dedicated to the Southern Confederacy, and is located northeast of Atlanta, Ga. The project has never been completed. A commemorative half dollar was minted in 1925, on which Generals Robert E. Lee and Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson are shown on the obverse. On the reverse an eagle with the words "Memorial To The Valor Of The Soldiers Of The South" appear.

One of the most important battles, the defeat at Gettysburg, marked the beginning of the end for the Confederacy. This battle more than any others seems to be most remembered. President Lincoln's Gettysburg address, given in November 1863, was dedicated in honor of the men who died on the battlefield to keep the Union alive. In 1936 Congress authorized a coinage of half dollars to commemorate the battle of Gettysburg, July 1-3, 1863. Portraits of a Union and a Confederate veteran are shown on the obverse; and two shields, representing Union and Confederate armies, separated by a double-bladed fasces, are on the reverse.

Due to the suspension of specie payments by the banks, and the hoarding of gold, silver and even cop-

per coins at the beginning of the Civil War, an acute shortage of small change made it necessary to use postage stamps for money; but the mutilage on their backs caused them to stick to objects, and they became dirty with handling and otherwise soiled easily. Perhaps the compelling reason for this use of stamps was due to speculators cornering the supply of small cents then in circulation, and forcing merchants to pay up to twenty percent premium for what they required to make change in their daily transactions.

At this stage of our monetary affairs, American ingenuity responded. John Gault, of Boston, devised and patented a round metal frame or case for holding postage stamps, so arranged with a thin mica covering over the face of the stamp to show its value. He conceived the idea of selling the space on the metal back of the case for advertising purposes, and all have some firm's business name. After some circulation, the mica covering over the stamp was often found scratched, dented or broken. Generally, the stamps became dirty, faded from age or exposure to sunlight, and the brass frames tarnished easily or became dark. A perfect specimen in all respects is, therefore, a rare article. These encased postage stamps were turned out during July and August of 1862, and issuance was short-lived due to the refusal of the government to sell Mr. Gault any more stamps. This was partly due to the fact that the Post Office Department had called in all stamps of the earlier period and demonitized them because the Confederate States had confiscated all those stamps within their territory, and had adopted them for their own postal use.

Looking back, it is true these pieces are not remarkable for any beauty of design or nice engraving; nothing artistic to tempt individual taste; only a plain brass case—but we must remember, they were a necessity issue, produced in very limited numbers during the stress of the Civil War. They were easily injured or destroyed, and have become one of the rarest series in our numismatic history.

The first official government greenbacks, as well as the extensive series of fractional currency, or better known to all of us as "shinplasters",

were issued during the late part of 1862.

Towards the end of the war, the metal two cent piece was issued. The motto "In God We Trust" appeared for the first time. Its presence on the coin was due largely to the increased religious sentiment during the war. The first bronze Indian Head cents were issued in 1864. All these sweeping changes have had a lasting effect on our monetary system.

Likewise, the Confederacy issued numerous forms of paper currency. The metallic issues, although not numerous, are a very important reminder of Confederate history. The silver half dollar struck at New Orleans for the Confederacy was unknown to collectors until 1879, when a specimen of the coin and both dies were found. According to records only four original Confederate half dollars were struck. Five hundred genuine 1861 half dollars from the New Orleans mint were acquired by J. W. Scott and Co. The reverses were planed off and then re-stamped with the Confederate die. These are known as restrikes.

Some 300,000 1861 half dollars were struck by the United States at the New Orleans mint, and the balance of the 1861 issue was struck by the Confederacy, but as no change of name was made on the coins it is impossible to distinguish one from another.

Lack of bullion prevented the Confederate government from proceeding with any coinage plans that might have been made.

The most popular and realistic form of emergency currency took the form of small copper tokens, better known as "copperheads". These were generally an imitation of the government currency at that time, and were first circulated in Cincinnati late in 1862. They were mostly struck in copper and were of two general groups: political or merchant tokens. They were accepted as a means of exchange for a value which was usually one cent. It should be mentioned that merchants could make a tidy profit using these coins, as the copper value in each was only one quarter of a cent. The attempts of the government at issuing the bronze cent and fractional currency were not sufficient to suppress the tokens then current. Finally,

in 1864. an act of Congress forbid any private individuals to issue any form of money.

The Confederacy thought Britain and France would be forced to extend full recognition to the cotton states. By 1863 they were convinced that the theory "Cotton was King", and would provide all necessary credits needed by the South to wage war, was false. The "King Cotton" theory was rather a "King Cotton" delusion to force recognition which never came.

The fall of 1863 was marked by much marching and maneuvering, none of it decisive. The year 1864 saw few encounters. In November, General Sherman laid siege to and captured Atlanta; he then proceeded to destroy a strip across Georgia sixty miles wide, during his famous march to the sea to capture Savannah.

In 1865 the Confederacy was losing the battle on all fronts, and by April General Lee had lost his last two cities, Richmond and Petersburg. Every soldier knew that further resistance was useless; and on April 9, General Lee surrendered the remnant of his gallant army to General Grant at Appomatox Court House, Virginia. On May 26, the last of the Confederate armies capitulated, marking the end of the war.

Looking back, it is true the Civil War was our own "Home Made War". We did not share it with anyone; we owned both sides of the fight. Ours is the credit for all the victories, and the burden of all defeats. The cost was terrible in lives for a small nation. Yet, now, one hundred years later, Americans, both north and south, can look back with pride and derive honor from this great common experience which unites us.

From a numismatic point of view, the Civil War gave rise to many innovations in our currency. This evolution was not easy. It was caused by necessity during the stress of war due to hoarding of gold, silver and even copper coins. From this milestone of our history came a new circulating media—paper money was born, and today is our medium of exchange.

One hundred years ago our forefathers fought over a principle; many of them gave their lives for it. This is what has made America the great nation it is today. For many years, until then, the states had been a Union divided. It was during the Civil War that all the peoples of our nation experienced a great ordeal and suffered severe sacrifice. This internal crisis forged the unity of our country, both the North and South. Once again our nation has become a Union united.

THE CONFEDERATE HALF DOLLAR OF 1861

By EDWARD SINS, San Francisco

Many coins which are referred to as unique or nearly so have been surrounded in mystery because they were not known until many years

after they were struck. The trade dollars of 1884 and 1885 were not "discovered" by numismatists until 1908. The Liberty nickels of 1913 were

not brought to light for more than twenty years. The same is true of the Confederate States of America half dollar of 1861, of which only four specimens were supposedly struck.

The Confederate half dollar was totally unknown to the numismatic world until 1879. The reason for keeping the secret of the coin was not the same that the two other coins were not publicized. The other pieces had been struck by individuals who worked for the mint, who were subject to disciplinary action should they be discovered. The Confederate coin was probably kept secret because the New Orleans mint and all of its equipment, including the obverse die used in striking the Confederate halves, was the property of the United States government. The obverse die was in fact seized when New Orleans fell to the Federal forces. Had anyone known of the Confederate die at the time, it too would probably have been seized and destroyed.

In any case, revelation of the existence of the die and coins was withheld by Dr. B. F. Taylor, chief coiner for the Confederacy, until a time well after the end of the Civil War and the Reconstruction Period that followed the War. In April, 1879, one coin and the reverse die from which it was struck passed from the hands of Dr. Taylor to a Mr. E. B. Mason Jr. of Philadelphia. It was Dr. Taylor's intention that the two items be donated by someone to a museum, as a relic of the Confederate government. Dr. Taylor probably sold the coin and die to Mr. Mason, however, since Mason re-sold these items later that year to a large U.S. coin dealer, J. W. Scott.

Mr. Scott is the man most usually associated with the Confederate half dollar, since it was he who used the die that he bought to manufacture the restrikes with which we are familiar today. Upon receiving the dies from Mason, he promptly sent out circulars offering to sell restrikes from the original die for two dollars each. The issue of restrikes was to be limited to 500 pieces.

Scott was quite fearful that the old die might shatter before all of his coins could be struck. As a precaution, he shrunk a heavy steel collar

about the die and ran 500 impressions in white metal, to insure that he would have something to send to his customers. When the white metal pieces were successfully struck, he purchased 500 1861-0 half dollars and planed off the reverses. The obverses of the coins were laid on a soft brass plate, while the reverse was restruck, to protect the obverse impressions from flattening. When the 500 pieces had been struck, a ridge was cut in the die to prevent it from being used again while not totally destroying it as a relic.

At this point, Scott played a trick on his customers. He claimed to have received 567 orders for coins, and thereupon sent only one coin to each subscriber. He also sent them a letter offering to buy back the coins for \$2.50 and offering to sell the original (destroyed) die for \$50. The white metal pieces were also offered for sale at fifty cents each. It is in fact doubtful if more than 250 of the restrikes were actually sold, since Scott had a plentiful supply of them for more than thirty years thereafter. He gradually raised the price of the restrikes to \$15 each.

The die used for the striking of the Confederate reverses now reposes in the collection of the Louisiana Historical Society, the gift of J. Sanford Saltus, who purchased it from Scott. Mr. Saltus later purchased the coin from David Proskey, a New York dealer, for the sum of \$3000. Saltus presented the coin to the American Numismatic Society, where it reposes today.

One of the unsolved mysteries that still surrounds the Confederate half dollar is what happened to the other three pieces. A letter from Dr. Taylor, the man who held the coin and die for fourteen years, names the three men to whom the other three coins were given. The same letter states that he knew of but one other piece, held by a former Confederate officer who intended to pass it on to his son. A letter to M. L. Beistle from David Proskey states that a "worn piece" (the Taylor-Scott piece is a proof) was discovered shortly after the first was made known. Perhaps this is the same "other piece" referred to by Taylor; perhaps it is a third piece. In any case, there are one or two of the pieces which are unknown today.



The Half Dollars of 1794-1807

By COMPTON JOHNSON

FOREWORD

The entire United States half dollar series, including the patterns, has been particularly interesting to me. Few other series of coins have been so consistently struck year after year, yet less in recent years has been written about half dollars, except the Commemoratives, than one would suspect. Hazeltine's Type Table (1881) was the first comprehensive attempt at classifying these coins. Later, Beistle (1929) published his Register of Half Dollar Die Varieties and Sub-Varieties, which work augmented and supplemented Hazeltine's effort. Beistle's Register is today the accepted standard work on this subject. Unfortunately, both Hazeltine and Beistle concerned themselves primarily with classification, and little or no information was imparted concerning many aspects of these coins of which the inquiring collector is interested.

—1794—

Twelve and one-half years after General Washington announced cessation of hostilities with England, the first half dollar was struck at the then two year old United States mint, located at 29 North Seventh St., Philadelphia. Philadelphia was the seat of our National Government at that time and establishment of the mint in that city was contingent upon the removal of the Capitol of our nation "within ten years to a place on the

Potomac," under an agreement between the northern and southern members of Congress. In October or early November, 1794, the half dollars were first struck. I quote the following excerpts from a report of the Mint Director, David Rittenhouse, written October 28, 1794—"A beginning has been made in coinage of the precious metals; near 120,000 ounces of bullion have already been deposited in the mint for coinage, a considerable quantity of which being too base for the standard of the U.S. Mint."

I quote further from the same report—"a parcel of blank dollars is ready for coining, waiting for a more powerful press to be furnished."

During the ensuing forty years, more than 59,000,000 half dollars were coined, being surpassed in number only by the large cents, of which almost 63,000,000 were struck.

The description of the 1794 half dollar is as follows: **Obverse**—Bust of Liberty, facing right, eight stars to left, seven to right, Liberty above and date below bust, which is characterized by long, loose or flowing hair. **Reverse** — U.S.A. and eagle, wings displayed, standing on a rock, head to right, within laurel wreath, scallop pattern on milling. **Edge**—fifty cents or half dollar with stars separating. Weight of coin, 208 grains, size 21/16 in. in diameter.

The devices of this half dollar are, therefore, the exact counterpart of the dollar of that year, the only difference between the two coins being the size, weight and lettering on the edge.

How many 1794 half dollars were minted in that year will, in my opinion, never be known. Certainly not more than a few thousand, due to the fact that coinage was commenced late and because the poor and inadequate mint equipment and lack of trained personnel was such as not to permit a large output of these coins, along with other coins.

It was not until 1836 that steam power presses were introduced, prior to that date the screw press being used. All machinery, such as the rolling machine, used to roll out the ingots into strips, the milling machine, used to turn up the planchet edges, and the coining press, itself, was manually operated.

During the first years of the mint's operation, every effort was directed toward increase to relieve demand for coins of all types—hence, dies which should have long been discarded due to wear or fractures, were used as long as possible, which explains, in part, the many sub-varieties. Mint methods employed to insure correct weight were crude, and when adjustments were found necessary, due to overweight, the hand-file was used, hence the term "file marks."

"File marks" or "adjustment marks," as they are sometimes termed, are found frequently on early date half dollars. The file was not always applied to the edge of the coin, but often to the obverse as well as the reverse side. Even gold coins, struck during this early period, bear this evidence of lack of proper methods to insure weight accuracy. One might wonder why so much care was exercised that a silver coin was not over-weight, even a few grains. The answer, of course, lies in the fact that during this period the intrinsic value was often more prized by the public than the value established for the coin as a medium of exchange.

Planchet defects are common, not only to the early half dollars but to other coins also. I have examined many early date half dollars and have

been amazed at the high proportion that have planchet defects. These imperfections, like "file marks," do not lessen the value of early mint products to the informed and experienced collector, but, on the contrary, rather like the "hallmark," characteristic of fine old silver, enhance their desirability.

The half dollars of 1794 are very scarce; coins in extremely fine condition being rare and in uncirculated condition, very rare. Of the seventeen varieties and sub-varieties listed by Beistle, six are very rare, irrespective of condition.

—1795—

The half dollars of 1795 are of precisely the same design as the 1794 half dollar, and more than 300,000 were struck. Like the 1794 half dollar, all have milled borders and the edges plain with lettering incused, or sunk in, for the dual purpose of indicating the denomination and to discourage clipping. The diameter of the coin is the same as that of 1794, as indeed are all half dollars struck prior to adoption of an entirely new type during 1836, with one exception, namely, the 1807 half dollar, with Liberty facing left and having large stars, which coin is slightly larger. Edge lettering was discontinued with adoption of the new type during 1836.

Student collectors of this series often specialize in the coins of this date, attempting to collect all or the majority of the some sixty odd varieties and sub-varieties. 1795 half dollars of the common varieties are not rare, except in uncirculated condition, many varieties being obtainable in fine to very fine condition at modest prices. However, the three leaf variety, one of the best known varieties, in fine condition commands a high price.

I happen to have a splendid uncirculated 1795 half dollar of the "open mouth" variety. This coin came to me indirectly from the Pierce Collection, and was classified as B-11-P. After careful study, I discovered the coin should have been classified as B-13-S. I relate this only to emphasize the need to examine carefully one's coins and not to blindly accept the attribution of a coin, even a coin coming from a famous collection of an outstanding numismatist.

One might wonder at the large number of varieties and sub-varieties of this date. Bear in mind that sub-varieties, for the most part, as distinguished from true varieties, which are variations in design deliberate on the part of the engraver, in execution, are the result primarily of poor or faulty materials, tools, production errors and the use of worn or cracked dies. Recut letters, stars, etc., are responsible for many sub-varieties. The need at that time to promote production, at the expense of perfection, is apparent.

—1796—

There was a change of design in 1796, the description of this half dollar being: **Obverse**—draped bust of Liberty to right, with long, loose hair, two side locks drawn back and tied with a ribbon; sixteen stars, nine on the left, seven on the right. **Reverse**—wreath composed of laurel and palm branches, the left half containing twenty-two laurel leaves and ten berries, the right half, sixteen palm leaves and no berries. Below, "one half" in fraction.

The coins of this year and of 1797 are the counterpart of the fillet dollar of 1795. Of the 1796 coins, there are two known varieties, one with fifteen stars on obverse, the other with sixteen stars; both varieties being rare in even fine condition. Coins of this date, when found in uncirculated condition are extremely rare and command a very high price.

No living numismatist can, with authority, say how many 1796 half dollars were struck. The mint records show no half dollars as being coined in that year, which indicates that possibly the calendar year was not meant, but rather the fiscal year, which began July 1 and ended June 30 of the following year.

—1797—

The half dollars of 1797 all have fifteen stars, eight on the left and seven on the right, and except for this and change in date, resemble in every respect the 1796 half dollars. Only one variety of this coin is known, although Beistle lists several sub-varieties.

Mint records show that but 3918 coins were struck, which statement I would not care to dispute, since coins of this date are all very rare,

irrespective of condition. From my own experience, I would hazard the opinion that in uncirculated condition, the 1797 half dollar is a greater rarity than either of the 1796 half dollars in a comparable condition.

—1798—1799—1800—

No half dollars were struck bearing the dates 1798, 1799 and 1800.

—1801—

In 1801 a new type half dollar made its first appearance. This half dollar is known as the **Heraldic Type**. The obverse is similar to that of the 1796 half dollar, except that the new coin has thirteen stars, seven to the left and six to the right. The reverse is entirely different, the description being as follows: **Legend**: UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. An eagle displayed, with large shield of U.S. on breast, grasping thirteen arrows in right claw and an olive branch in the left; in the beak a scroll inscribed **E PLURIBUS UNUM** (One out of Many); above the head, a glory, thirteen stars, beneath an arch of clouds.

Two varieties of this coin are listed by Beistle, one with thirteen arrows in the eagle's claw; the other, the rarer variety, with twelve arrows.

All half dollars struck during 1801 and after, until coinage in 1948 of the Ben Franklin half dollar, have thirteen stars on the obverse.

1801 half dollars are rare, irrespective of condition and, while mint records indicate more than 30,000 were struck, seldom do we find either the twelve or thirteen arrow variety in better than fine condition, most specimens being only good to fine. Any 1801 specimens of a grade better than very fine are very rare.

—1802—

In 1802, according to the mint records, 29,890 half dollars were coined, all of the same variety and all having twelve arrows in the eagle's claw.

These coins, from my experience, belong in the same category as the 1801 half dollars as to rarity. This view is not shared, however, by all numismatists. I might again hazard an opinion that the collector who has specialized in a series is more aware of the greater rarity of a particular coin than is one of extensive general numismatic experience.

In 1803 some 31,000 half dollars were coined, and we find two varieties. The first variety, the scarcer, is the so-called "small 3" in the date. The other is the so-called "large 3." In addition, there are five listed sub-varieties. Some of the 1803 coins have twelve arrows in the eagle's claw, but most of them have thirteen. All coins of this date are very scarce in choice condition, uncirculated specimens being rare.

Many of the 1803 half dollars bear evidence of a phenomenon first detected on the 1795 half dollars, commonly known as "suction marks." In my opinion, it is unfortunate that this term was ever employed. Beistle coined a word for these marks, which are defects on the coins, where a device, or a part thereof, rightfully belonging on one side of the coin is found either embossed or incused on the opposite side. The word Beistle coined is "akcidefect." The term "suction marks" was first used because many persons believed the effect was produced by suction while the dies parted and when the tremendous pressure required in coining was released, the suction drawing the impression through the planchet. In this theory, I cannot concur. I have, in the course of collecting, to find one instance where the embossed markings are not perfectly formed and often sharp, as direct pressure of the die applied to the planchet would make. In addition, I have noticed how frequently specimens show up bearing the identical markings. By no stretch of the imagination can I conceive how incused or embossed markings could have been "drawn through" the planchet. Beistle is of the opinion, and with which opinion I agree, that through accident the obverse and reverse dies were brought together under pressure with no planchet separating them; the harder of the two dies leaving a portion of its impression on the softer die, which, in effect, caused all coins subsequently struck to show this evidence of carelessness. Why not let our National Association, once and for all time, attempt to settle this point, and if the latter theory is proven correct let us then expunge the term "suction marks" from the lexicon of numismatic terminology.

While there is some evidence that half dollars may have been coined during 1804 (the Mint records indicate more than 150,000), the consensus of most numismatists is that no half dollars bearing the date 1804 were struck. It is possible that the coins attributed to 1804, in the Mint report, were actually struck in 1805, prior to July 1, but within the fiscal year.

It was during this year, 1804, that coinage of the ten dollar gold piece was suspended; only the small denominations of both gold and silver coins being continued, after a short interruption. The 1804 dollar, for example, not even being struck in that year but at a later date, according to some students of the history of this famous coin. This suspension in coining the ten dollar gold piece and the silver dollar was largely brought about because as bullion many of the gold coins and silver coins were being exported, prices realized by exporters exceeding their exchange value in our country. Coinage of the ten dollar gold piece was not resumed until 1838 and the silver dollar did not reappear, except as a pattern, before 1840. From 1804 until 1840, the half dollar was, for all practical purposes, the only medium of exchange when "hard" money was required. These coins also served as reserves against paper money issued by banks.

Gold during this period was hoarded, and only a few silver dimes and quarters were in circulation. From 1794 to 1832 only 8,619,000 dimes and slightly more than 2,500,000 quarters were minted.

Richard Yeoman, in his "Guide Book of U.S. Coins," 1948 edition, lists an 1804 half dollar--one known. No numismatist, to whom I have ever spoken concerning this coin, has ever claimed to have seen or handled one. Beistle stated "not one of this date is now known." Further I have meticulously examined catalogs of well known sales, going back more than one hundred years, and have failed to find an instance where this coin was listed. In recent years, such well known collections as the Wharton, Hall, Pierce, Higgy, Dunham, Atwater, Roach, Geiss, Neil, Olsen and Grinnel did not contain an 1804



half dollar. Surely one might reasonably expect, that if this coin actually exists, a specimen would have been found in one of these collections.

A numismatist, A. M. Smith, who was a prominent dealer in Philadelphia eighty years ago, flatly stated that no 1804 half dollars were struck. I quote from a document written by W. Elliott Woodward, a leading numismatist of his day, who purchased intact the celebrated Mickley Collection (1866)—"The Mickley collection, which is now in the collection of the writer, probably contains the only perfect set of U.S. silver to be found, and even this lacks the 1804 half dollar; a specimen of which is claimed for a fine collection in the Empire State, but concerning the genuineness of which opinions are divided."

Seventy-nine years later the Numismatic Gallery sold at public auction (April, 1945) a magnificent collection of half dollars forming part of a collection termed "World's Greatest Collection of U.S. Coins." In the catalog listing the collection appears this statement—"There are no half dollars dated 1804."

We know there was more than one die made for the 1804 half dollar, and we have the 1805 half dollar, the over-date, with its two varieties to prove it. Certainly, the 1804 half dollar is as great, if not a greater, enigma than its counterpart the 1804 dollar. If, as Mr. Yeoman stated, there is one 1804 half dollar known, and its genuineness established beyond all doubt, then I would unhesitatingly proclaim that this coin shares equally with the twenty dollar gold piece of 1849 as being of the greatest rarity of all U.S. coins.

—1805—

In 1805 more than 200,000 half dollars were struck, if mint records are to be trusted, embracing some six varieties and eight sub-varieties. The best known varieties are the over-dates, the 1805s over 1804, which are the first over-dates of the half dollar series. The perfect date of the 1805 half dollar is not generally considered as scarce as the over-date, but from my own experience I am convinced that the perfect date is just as scarce, in choice condition. Uncirculated specimens of the 1805 half dollar, either the perfect date or the over-date, are rare.

—1806

Half dollars of 1806 are particularly interesting due to the many varieties and sub-varieties, and more than 800,000 were struck. The better known varieties are the 1806 over 1805, the 1806 over 6, with knobbed 6, and the 1806 over 9 (which I consider an extremely rare coin). The first cut 6 of this coin was inverted in error, and then recut correctly. Other major varieties of this date are the round top 6, the pointed 6, and the small and large stars. There is also a variety where the stem does not go through the eagle's claw.

Beginning with the half dollars of 1806 we find for the first time that it is not too difficult to secure choice coins of the more common varieties, and extremely fine specimens are not rare, only very scarce.

—1807—

1807 was the last year that the Heraldic Type of half dollar was struck, and toward the end of that year a new type of half dollar, portraying a large Liberty head facing

left, with draped bust and Liberty cap on obverse and an entirely different reverse was adopted. The story of this new type half dollar rightfully belongs to another chapter, as these interesting coins, with but slight variation in design, were coined continu-

ously and without interruption, except in 1816, when no half dollars were struck, for almost thirty years.

Editor's Note—The author of this article passed away about six or seven years ago; and the article is now the property of Mrs. Thelma Case of Santa Monica.

PRIVATE GOLD MINTAGE — DENVER

by Ray Bower

The Clark Bros. from Ripley, Ohio, and Gruber from Hagerstown, Maryland, met in Leavenworth, Kansas, in 1858 where they engaged in the banking business. In the course of things, they realized the need for having banking and minting facilities closer to the source of gold, which was being mined in the general area of Denver, Colo. This would eliminate the risk of shipping raw gold, and the great cost of transportation.

So the vision of three men became a reality when Austin M. and Milton E. Clark and E. H. Gruber formed a bank and mint in Denver in July 1860. This establishment was known as Clark Gruber & Co., thus becoming the first mint in the area and the predecessor to the Branch Mint of the United States at Denver.

The first coins minted were the \$10 and \$20 pieces of 1860. These pieces were of pure gold and of the same weight as the regular issue U.S. coinage, thus making them more valuable due to the absence of alloy.

These first two coins were different in type than the balance of coinage in that the obverse showed a view of Pikes Peak where much of the gold was being mined. The denomination was also given on this side. The reverse depicted a spread eagle similar to that used on our regular issue, with the date below. Clark Gruber

& Co. was spelled out along the rim of the coin.

The \$2.50 and \$5 of 1860, which must have been coined in early 1861, contained alloy to make a harder, more durable material. These two pieces had the head of Liberty on the obverse with Pikes Peak spelled out in the headband. The date was found on this and on all coins of 1861 on the obverse.

Clark Gruber & Co. minted coins just two years—1860 and 1861—but struck more than three million dollars worth. Due primarily to the honesty of the coiners and to the great need for some type of exchange other than scales, gold dust and nuggets, the coinage of Clark Gruber & Co. was readily accepted in the area, but as has happened with all the private and territorial gold coin, they served their purpose only in the interim. Their coins were melted down as the U.S. Branch Mint came to the area and produced regular issue coins.

It has been estimated by leading numismatists that fewer than 30 pieces of the 1860 \$20 remain and not more than 50 pieces of the 1860 \$10. This I believe as to the number of times these two coins made their appearance in auction sales in the last few years.

—reprint from Santa Barbara Coin Club "Newsette".

CASE OF THE GILDED NICKEL

By STUART JAMES



Not many counterfeiters have managed to pass their phony wares and still avoid the long arm of Uncle Sam. But, Josh Tatum had a foolproof scheme and got away with about \$15,000 in small change.

Among the coins the United States mint had in circulation in 1883 were the Liberty Head Nickel and the gold Half Eagle (worth \$5). The front of each coin was stamped with the head of the Goddess of Liberty. On the reverse side of the nickel was the inscription "E Pluribus Unum" and the Roman numeral "V." The reverse of the half eagle bore the simple inscription "Five D." Heads up they were both alike, except for the fact that one was yellow and the other a white-ish color.

Josh Tatum, a petty hustler of sorts, was in Boston that year. Always a man to look for a fast money scheme, he pondered the similarity of the two coins. Eventually he took them to a Boston pawn broker and second-hand jeweler, who owned a gold plating machine. The man was not adverse to turning a dubious dollar, and fell in with the scheme. He and Josh invested fifty dollars in Liberty Head nickels, and gold plated the entire batch.

With a thousand of the altered coins Josh set out for a test run. Carrying a small black bag he entered a tobacco store. Mustached and slightly balding, he looked the part of a respectable businessman, and when he placed the gold piece on the counter and pointed to a five cent cigar, the clerk was anything but suspicious. He took the coin, dropped it in his cash box and handed Josh \$4.95 in change. Josh nodded and left, repeating this performance in one

tobacco shop after another. A trail of five cent stogies tossed carelessly into the street marked his itinerary that day, and at the end of the week the entire thousand coins had been passed in the city of Boston.

Some merchants turned them over and looked at the reverse side. They saw the "V," but since the coins were new and shiny they assumed the government had put out a new issue of the five dollar half eagle.

Josh and his jeweler friend invested in five thousand more nickels, altered them with the gold plate, and Josh went on the road, working the towns and cities between Boston and New York, which was to be the Golconda of his dreams. He passed about two thousand more before the government agents closed in and arrested him with almost one thousand of the gilded nickels in his luggage.

Hundreds of witnesses took the stand at Josh's trial and testified that he had cheated them out of \$4.95. In cross-examination the defense counsel asked each witness just one question: "Did Josh Tatum ever ask for change?"

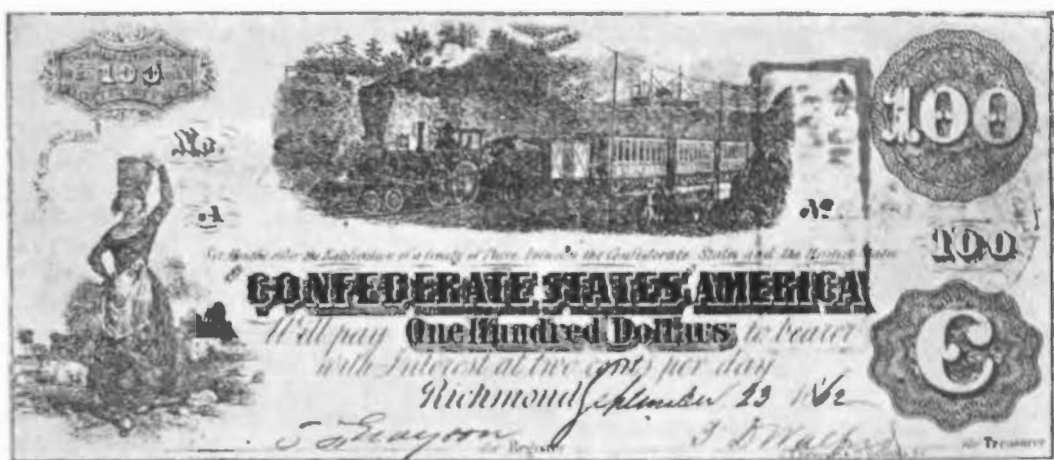
The answer in each case was "No." The merchants admitted that Josh had merely put down the coin, pointed to what he wanted (always a five cent article), and then took the change. This was natural for Josh—and proved to be his ace in the hole. Josh Tatum was a deaf mute.

The case was dismissed on the grounds that the merchants had actually cheated themselves. And there was no law on the books against gold plating a nickel.

Immediately following the trial, a special session of Congress was called and the United States mint was authorized to change the inscription on the back of the nickel to "Five Cents." Subsequently, a law was passed against the defacement of a United States minted coin.

* * *

Editor's Note—Our records do not indicate the identity of the author of this article, nor his address. Are any of our readers able to furnish me with this information?



THE COIN AND CURRENCY OF THE CIVIL WAR

By FRANK STRAUSS, Monrovia

INTRODUCTION

With the secession of South Carolina, Dec. 20, 1860, the Union "one and inseparable" was a Union no longer. The igniting spark was a question of slavery, but the North and South, one industrial and one agrarian, had been drawing apart since colonial days. Other states following South Carolina's lead seceded early in 1861.

Jefferson Davis became President of the Confederate States of America on Feb. 9, 1861. At that time the Confederacy consisted of seven states. Following the surrender of Fort Sumter on April 14, 1861, six more states had seceded by the end of the year. On April 15, 1861, President Lincoln declared a state of insurrection existed and called for volunteer troops. The South soon recognized that it could not peacefully part ways with the North, and on May 6, 1861 the Confederate Congress made known that a state of war existed between the United States and the Confederate States. It was to last four long, bloody years.

I intend to describe one small but important segment of that struggle, the coin and currency of the period, probably dealing more with the southern aspect, mainly the paper money of the Confederate Treasury which played an important part in buying material of war. Having but little coin in spite of foreign loans, seizure of the three United States mints in

the south, and patriotic contributions of the people, the Confederate government resorted to paper money.

CONFEDERATE HALF DOLLAR

This is the only numismatic record of a million people who maintained a precarious existence in the face of overwhelming odds for the space of nearly four and a half years.

The beginning of the year 1910 was signalized in a numismatic way by the offering for sale of the only known specimen of the official metallic coinage of the Confederate States of America.

Coming from its resting place in a safety deposit box where it had lain for 28 years, this unique half dollar created quite a sensation in the numismatic world. An account of its unusual significance caused much interest among the lay world, which is always intensely alive to any souvenir or relic so closely associated with the Lost Cause.

There are very few American coins today that can be said to rank in interest with this half dollar, with its authentic United States obverse and distinctive Confederate States reverse. Such an unique combination of the official devices of two great opposing powers probably has not another parallel in history.

The story of the finding of the Confederate half dollar is as follows: E. Mason Jr., a Philadelphia numismatist, prepared an article on rare coins for a New York newspaper

which appeared Jan. 2, 1879. A few days later he received a communication from a Dr. B. F. Taylor, secretary and treasurer of the Louisiana Board of Health, stating he had a Confederate coin in his possession. A few months later Taylor sent the original coin and die to Mason. Taylor had been chief coiner of the Confederate mint, and said the United States mint had been turned over to the Confederacy by the State of Louisiana the latter part of February 1861. The old officers retained the Confederate government were William A. Elmore, superintendent, A. J. Guirot, treasurer, M. F. Bazano, melter and refiner, and Howard Mispaugh, assayer.

In April 1861 Secretary of the Treasury Memminger ordered that designs for half dollar pieces be submitted to him for approval. The design selected was the one with which we are now familiar, and the dies were engraved by A. H. M. Peterson, engraver and die sinker, and were prepared for the coining press by Conrad Schmidt, foreman of the coining room.

It was found for some reason that the dies could not be fitted to the regular coining press, so it was necessary to use the old hand screw press upon which four were struck.

One of these coins was given to the Confederate government, and probably is the one Jefferson Davis is said to have owned. The second was presented to Prof. Biddle of the University of Louisiana; the third to Dr. E. Ames of New Orleans; and the fourth was kept by chief coiner Taylor.

About this time an order came from Secretary Memminger suspending operation on account of the difficulty of obtaining bullion, and the mint was closed on April 10, 1861.

Mason disposed of the coin and the Confederate reverse die to a New York dealer, who wrote a letter to Jefferson Davis in reference to the coin and was recipient of the following reply:

Beauvoir P.O.
Harrison Co., Miss.

Sirs:

I had a Confederate coin. It was in my wife's trunk when it was rifled by the Federal officers on board the prison ship on which she was detained at Hampton Roads before and after my

confinement in Fortress Monroe. The coin, some medals and other valuables were stolen at that time. Whether that coin be the same which has been offered to you as a duplicate, I cannot say. It is however not true as published that it is now in my possession.

Regretting that I cannot give you more information on this particular subject of your inquiry, I remain

Respectfully

Jefferson Davis

The dealer obtained five hundred 1861 half dollars bearing the New Orleans mint letter "O", and had the reverse design removed from them. Then the coins were re-stamped with the reverse die of the Confederate half dollar. The die broke on the first trial, and was then set in a heavy steel band to prevent further damage. (All these restrikes show this die break.)

The five hundred half dollars of the New Orleans mint were obtained only after much difficulty. After the restrikes had been made the die was defaced by filing a deep groove across the face, and a brass plate was struck from the defaced die to show what had been done.

What became of the other coins seems destined to remain a mystery. Judging by the letter of Jefferson Davis it would seem that the Confederate President at that one time owned a specimen, which may have been the one given to the Confederate government at the time the pieces were coined.

The other two specimens, one of which had been given Prof. Biddle and the other to Dr. Ames, have never been heard of from that day to this, as far as is known, and probably now are no longer in existence.

CONFEDERATE CENT

An order to make cents for the Confederacy was placed with Robert Lovett, an engraver and die sinker of Philadelphia, through a jewelry firm of that city. Fearing arrest by the United States government for assisting the enemy, Lovett decided against delivering the coins to the Confederate government. He hid the coins and the dies in his cellar. Eightyone pieces had been struck; twelve originals and the rest as restrikes.

CONFEDERATE PAPER MONEY

The leaders of the South knew well the dangers of inflation, and original-

ly did not intend unlimited issues of paper money.

The paper money was to be backed by cotton. The South in 1860 had produced more than 4,000,000 bales of cotton, of which more than three-fourths had been exported. Half of this had gone to England. Planters were asked to contribute a portion of their crop to the government for which bonds were given in return, or as CSA vice president Stephens described it: "a loan of the cotton with the bonds being a profitable investment, selling above par if the Confederacy wins the war; if not they will be worth just as much as anything else you have, and nothing else you have will be worth anything". An accurate prediction.

Since the South produced most of the world's supply of cotton at that time there was no question of demand. That portion of the cotton loaned to it by the planters was expected to provide ample money for the government, to the tune of about \$100,000,000 a year.

Unfortunately a flaw developed in their calculations. England had a good supply of cotton on hand, and the United States navy blockaded the ports of the South.

FIRST ISSUE

The Act of March 9, 1861 authorized treasury notes to be issued for such sums or sum as the emergencies of the public service might require, but not to exceed at any time \$1,000,000 and in denominations not less than \$50 for any such note "payable in twelve months after date" with interest at 1¢ per day for each \$100. Redeemed notes could be replaced with new notes as long as the total sum of this issue outstanding did not exceed \$1,000,000. Accordingly a totaling of the number of each denomination issued under the act shows an aggregate sum of \$2,021,000, although not all in circulation at one time. This act expired March 1, 1862.

The first notes of \$50 to \$1,000 were dated at Montgomery, Ala., which was the Confederate capital until after Virginia seceded and the capital was moved to Richmond on May 24, 1861. This move was made because of the desire to have the capital close to the field of operations and because the Old Dominion had great prestige among the Southern cities.

This issue was engraved and printed by the National Bank Note Co. of New York. The South, lacking skilled engravers, arranged to have its first notes printed in the North and smuggled into the South. This was not too difficult, considering that there were many Southern sympathizers (including Mayor Wood of New York). Bank note companies have tended to have a business rather than a political basis, and as long as the printing is paid for it does not matter whether the government is an old established one or has just revolted.

Surprising as it may seem the vignettes used on Confederate notes were not wildly patriotic designs. Many notes did not even picture Southern scenes, but were vignettes used before in the North. For example, the central figure on the \$500 note had appeared for a short time on the \$1 note of the North Western Bank of Warren, Penn., so that the design was circulating in the North at the same time it appeared in the South. The first four series of Confederate issues contain many Northern vignettes or copied vignettes.

These notes bear various written dates (usually May or June, 1861), and usually endorsed on the back. They bear the signature of Alexander B. Clitherall as Register and E. C. Elmore as Treasurer of the Confederacy. First issue notes are on bank paper, and there is only one major variety for each note. This issue is often found in all conditions, often cut cancelled, including crisp specimens. In this connection they are somewhat in the nature of bonds, but are not bonds (coupon bearing bonds were issued by the Confederate government at the same time) being correctly described as "interest bearing paper money", many examples of which have been issued before and since by various banks and governments.

RICHMOND ISSUE 1861

This issue was printed under the same act as the Montgomery issue by the Southern Bank Note Co., New York, actually the American Bank Note Co., which had a branch in New Orleans. Printed on red fibre paper, written dates (usually August or September, 1861), written signatures of Robert Tyler as Register and E. C. Elmore as Treasurer of the Confed-

acy. Robert Tyler (son of John Tyler, tenth President of the United States) succeeded Clitherall as Register on Aug. 13, 1861.

SECOND ISSUE, JULY 1861

The Act of May 16, 1861 authorized treasury notes not exceeding \$20,000,000 "fundable" in Confederate stock bearing 8% interest and payable "two years after date". The Act of July 24, 1861 authorized the Secretary to appoint clerks to assist the Treasurer and Register in signing these notes, since the quantity was too great for the two men alone. Apparently some of the notes had already been printed, as some varieties have the word "for" the Register and Treasurer written instead of printed.

THIRD ISSUE, SEPTEMBER 1861

This series of notes was authorized under the Act of August 9, 1861, and was not to exceed \$100,000,000 outstanding at any one time, including the amount authorized under former acts. This was supplemented by an additional \$50,000,000, authorized by the Act of Dec. 24, 1861, while a third Act of April 18, 1862 increased the total by an additional \$50,000,000 without reserve, plus \$10,000,000 more as reserve funds; a total of \$60,000,000 and a grand total of \$210,000,000. Section 21 of the Act of August 19, 1861 takes cognizance of making or passing counterfeits, with the penalty—death.

Encouraged by the rout of the Union forces at the first battle of Bull Run on July 21, 1861, this issue states that it is payable "six months after the ratification of a treaty of peace", instead of two years as on previous issues.

Outside of the difficulty of obtaining competent engraving, the greatest problem of the Confederate Treasury was to obtain sufficient paper. The Confederacy had paper problems from the first, and they became greater with this large issue. It is perhaps not so remarkable that they issued such a great quantity of paper money, but that they were able to obtain sufficient paper to print all of it. In this day and age when we see new printed matter we are likely to overlook the fact that at the time of the Civil War paper was not produced in large quantities. Instead of using paper pulp, paper was made from

linen and cotton rags. An editor in Georgia thought it likely that paper could be made from wood pulp, but no one in the South acted on his idea at the time, although the process had been invented in Europe. So the twenty paper mills (1863) continued to call for rags of which they never received enough. Some paper was captured or smuggled in from the North, but the greater part of the paper came from England, and made its appearance in this series of notes.

FOURTH ISSUE, 1862

This issue, authorized by the Act of April 17, 1862, contains several interesting features. Section one authorized notes in the denomination of \$1 and \$2, although by some error some of the \$2 notes contain an earlier date of Sept. 2, 1861. Section three authorized the \$100 interest notes, which paid interest at the rate of 2% per day or double that of the Montgomery issue. This was an attempt to reduce circulation as these were to be held as a temporary investment. Later by an Act of Feb. 17, 1864 the \$100 notes had their status changed to that of bonds. Another oddity of this issue is the \$10 note dated Sept. 2, 1862, as well as the \$10 and \$20 "essay" notes of this date, none of which were authorized by this act.

FIFTH ISSUE, DECEMBER 1862

Under the Act of Oct. 13, 1862, \$90,000,000 in Treasury notes were authorized. All denominations were engraved by Keatringe and Ball, but part of the lithographic and printing on the lower denominations was done by other firms. B. Duncan helped produce the \$1, \$10 and \$20 notes; J. T. Paterson and Co. the \$2, \$5 and \$20 notes; and Evans and Cogswell the \$5 and \$10 notes. Notes by these firms carry their imprint in addition to that of Keatringe and Ball. With addition of Evans and Cogswell to its printers, the Confederate government enlisted the aid of the largest publishing houses in the South.

Located in Charleston, So. Carolina, this firm moved to Columbia in 1864. At that time the firm had 74 printing presses, plus other equipment for book publishing as well as its printing work for the Confederate army and treasury. More than 300 persons were employed, of whom 74

had been brought in from Europe by blockade runners for the express purpose of working for this firm.

SIXTH ISSUE, APRIL 1863

In spite of the desire of the government to issue more bonds and reduce paper money circulation, people continued to demand more currency which resulted in further inflation. That the government was unable to stay the ever increasing production of its printing presses is vividly illustrated by the Act of March 23, 1863 which authorized this issue. The \$5 to \$100 notes could be issued in amounts not exceeding \$50,000,000 monthly, plus a total of \$15,000,000 in 50c, \$1 and \$2 notes (for an entire issue).

The Confederacy had not been defeated at Gettysburg and Vicksburg when this issue first appeared, but the pressure of war was making itself felt. With this issue all, except the three lower denominations, again carried the clause indicating that payment of the notes would be made "Two years after the ratification of a treaty of peace".

SEVENTH ISSUE, FEBRUARY 1864

Under the Act of Feb. 17, 1864 a new issue of notes was authorized, which were printed in unlimited quantities (probably about one billion dollars). All earlier notes were to be retired after being funded into bonds by certain dates after which any remaining notes were to be taxed out of existence. Apparently this effort to reduce circulation was not too successful, judging by the number of earlier issues still in existence.

By this time the value of the Confederate dollar was so low it did not matter much whether one redeemed his money in equally inflated bonds or not. Circulating side by side, one issue was worth as much as the other. The 1864 bonds given for exchange for redeemed notes were not immediately available from the printers, while later the supply of bonds at a given depository might be insufficient to equal the quantities of notes to be exchanged. To meet the emergency, Section Two of this Act provided for certificates to be given in lieu of bonds.

CONFEDERATE TREAS. NOTES

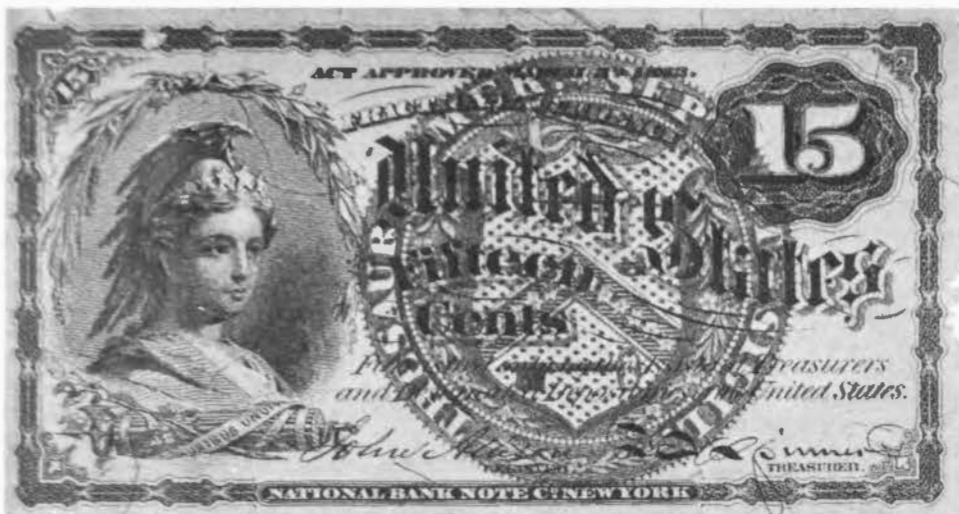
Relative purchasing power in gold.
Comparative Notes per
Date \$1 gold
May 1, 1861\$ 1.05

October 1	1.10
October 15	1.12
November 15	1.15
December 1	1.20
February 1, 1862.....	1.25
March 1	1.50
April 1	1.75
May 1	1.90
June 1	2.00
August 1	2.20
September 1	2.50
February 1, 1863	3.00
March 1	3.50
May 1	6.00
July 1	8.00
August 1	10.00
December 1	21.00
March 1, 1864	26.00
April 1	19.00
May 1	20.00
September 1	23.00
December 1	32.00
January 1, 1865	60.00
April 1	80.00
April 20	100.00
May 1	1200.00
(last exchange)	

ENCASED POSTAGE STAMPS

From a numismatic point of view the Civil War gave rise to many innovations in currency as well as various emergency specie. No short period in our history has produced such wide changes in our monetary system. The first official United States government greenbacks, as well as the extensive series of fractional currency (shinplasters), were issued during this period. The paper money of today is such an essential part of our every day life that it is hard to realize that it is only a little more than 100 years old. Toward the end of the war two cent pieces were issued, as well as the first use of the familiar motto "In God We Trust". The first bronze Indian head cents were issued as patterns in 1863, and achieved general circulation in 1864. All these sweeping changes had a lasting effect on our monetary system.

Early in 1862 all metallic currency was gradually withdrawn from circulation. Citizens anticipating the possible increase in value of all metals commenced hoarding gold, silver and even copper to such an extent that there were no metallic coins in circulation. One can imagine the chaos that was created in the conducting of everyday business. There was no way



to make change, and the merchants were forced to resort to some means of promoting a method of exchange. The first attempt at making change was the use of the ordinary postage stamps. Obviously because of their flimsy nature, these stamps had a short circulation. Next the merchants issued small envelopes, generally with an advertisement on them, so that the stamps could obtain some degree of protection.

During this period one of the most interesting pieces of "Necessity Money" was issued. New York City was the birthplace of this peculiar sort of money, which was formed by placing the regular United States postage stamps in flat circular brass cases (the faces being protected by a thin sheet of mica). The encased stamps were of the denominations of 1, 3, 5, 10, 12, 24, 30 and 90 cents. This method of protecting the stamps, so that they could withstand the wear of circulation, was the invention of John Gault, a sewing machine salesman, who did business at Park Place, New York. He manufactured many varieties to be used by business houses in lieu of small change and the badly mutilated and worn postage stamps. These answered the purpose of practical money for a while at the beginning of the war. Many of the encased stamps bore the name of the issuing firm on the back, and not only served the purpose of fractional currency but advertised the firm of issue in a thorough and yet inexpensive fashion.

The patent dated from July and August 1862, and the stamps used in the metallic cases were the regular postage stamps of that period. The one cent blue and three cent orange showed the portrait of Franklin; the five cent brown showed the portrait of Jefferson; and the ten cent green, twelve cent black, twentyfour cent violet and ninety cent blue all showed the portrait of Washington.

The Scoville Button Co. of Waterbury, Conn., which made the brass cases for the advertising firms, at the same time was under contract to the Federal government making military buttons for the Union uniforms issued to the troops.

An interesting specimen of the encased stamp money is one of the old denomination of nine cents. There being no postage stamp of this value, the denomination was produced by placing three three cent stamps in an oblong copper case with the usual covering of mica. The back bore no name, but the piece was intended to circulate in New York City, as the reverse bore an embossed representation of a snake and an eagle, the same as that shown on the New York cents struck in German silver by Dr. Lewis Feuchtwanger of New York City, which were issued in 1837. Around the central figure was scroll work. Little is known of the history of this item, but it is thought to have been a product of Gault on account of the New York device.

Another equally interesting piece associated with the encased postage

stamp money is an essay for a five cent piece. In a frame of silver had been placed a stamp cut from a five cent note of the first issue of the postage currency. This was protected by mica, both back and front.

TOKENS AND STORE CARDS

Now there began to appear various forms of privately issued types of paper currency, but because it had so little intrinsic value it did not meet with wide acceptance. Cardboard scrip also was circulated. However, the most popular and realistic form of emergency currency took the form of small copper tokens, generally in imitation of the government currency which first began to circulate late in 1862. These small copper tokens, generally the size and weight of the small bronze cent, met with general acceptance.



Two general types of tokens were issued—the so-called patriotic tokens and the traders' cards. The patriotic series, mainly issued in and around New York, had patriotic slogans on them, but bore no advertisement. Many of the pieces were in general imitations of the Indian head cent then currently popular. The merchant's or tradesman's cards were widely issued, and in general bore the merchant's advertisement on one side and a patriotic slogan on the other. The tradesmen tokens were issued in 23 states and almost 300 towns. More than 8000 varieties of these tokens are known; some 5800 having been listed by Hettrich and Gutttag, catalogers.

The issues of Civil War tokens exceeded 25,000,000 pieces, which amply filled the needs of the merchants. They were commonly accepted as a means of exchange for the value which was usually one cent. It should be noted that merchants could make a tidy profit using these coins as the copper content was only 23/100 of a cent. They were undoubtedly a source of great relief and convenience, but

their irresponsible character soon attracted the attention of the Federal government.

Hettrich and Gutttag stated that the Third Avenue Railroad of New York requested Lindenmueller, a merchant, to redeem a large number of his tokens which they had accepted in the course of their business, but this he laughingly refused to do. The railroad had no redress, but it is likely that incidents such as this forced the hand of the government. The attempts at issuing bronze cents and fractional currency were not sufficient to suppress the tokens then current. Finally in 1864 an Act of Congress forbid any private individual to issue any form of money. Thus ended an era, one that has been slow to be recognized by numismatists.

FRACTIONAL CURRENCY

Out of this confusion was born one of the most interesting types of paper money, the United States fractional currency. These beautiful little bills, ranging in denominations from three to fifty cents, played their part in helping to carry on commerce during and after the Civil War.



The first of the five issues was known as postage currency and was issued in 1862 and 1863. The next four issues, from 1863 to 1876, were called fractional currency.

The subject used for the five cent denomination caused quite a stir, as it was a portrait of Spencer M. Clark. Congress decided to print a commemorative bill to Roger Clark. Spencer M. Clark, a \$1200 a year man, thought it was he they were honoring. The result was a law prohibiting the appearance of a portrait of any living person on United States coins, currency or postage stamps. There have been some exceptions since, as is the

case of the American Independence Sesquicentennial half dollar of 1926 which has a portrait of the current president Calvin Coolidge.

CONCLUSION

In the end the South was not beaten by General Grant or Sherman—it was beaten by General Hard Times. Its primitive home industries could only partly replace the many necessities cut off by the blockade, and those with inferior goods. It was like a modern mechanized army having to run on kerosene instead of gasoline, the engine collapsing on low grade fuel.

We can only guess at the outcome had the Civil War been decided on the military field alone with fully equipped armies. That the Confederate army existed as long as it did (pay for the private was “frozen” at about \$8 per month when cavalry boots were costing \$500 in inflated currency in 1864) on slim rations and in-

sufficient equipment can only attest to the devotion of these men to the Southern cause. Men who believe in such causes often perform so far “beyond the call of duty” as to be beyond human comprehension.

Be that as it may in these days immediately after the centennial years, Yankee or Rebel, I’m sure we are all glad to be Americans.

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SAINT-GAUDENS DOUBLE EAGLE

by Ray Bower, Ojai

The high relief Augustus Saint-Gaudens’ designed double eagle is considered by many as the most beautiful of all U.S. coins.

It was through the persistence of President Theodore Roosevelt that this coin came into being. The President had long felt that our coinage was very common and plain, and that we should give more consideration to improving the artistry of our coins.

President Roosevelt had long admired the sculptor work of Augustus Saint-Gaudens, and when they met in 1905 the President lost no time in discussing his wishes for coin improvement. It was Roosevelt’s idea that possibly we could have a coin of high relief such as the ancient Greek coinage, and he and the sculptor worked hand-in-hand for two years in developing the new design for this beautiful coin.

There were numerous problems in striking these coins due to the high relief. It was found that they had to be struck many times and annealed between each impression before the metal would come up in all relief.

There were 16 original trial pieces struck. The obverse shows Standing

Liberty holding aloft in her right hand the torch of enlightenment and in her left hand the branch of peace. There are two folds in the skirt on the side of the right leg. The capitol building in the background on the left is very small. The date 1907 is in Roman numerals. On the reverse there is a flying eagle above the rising sun with 14 rays. The coin has a high wire edge without border.

The 11,250 pieces struck with Roman numerals and high relief, differ from the original trial pieces in that three folds show on the skirt, and 13 rays rise from the sun on the reverse. These pieces are known in flat and wire-edged varieties. The wire edge came about by the expansion of the collar of the dies on some copies.

All the Roman numeral coins are somewhat scarce in top condition, and the original 16 are of extreme rarity. The copy that was originally owned by President Theodore Roosevelt is now in the Smithsonian Institution, having been presented to the Institution by Cornelius V. S. Roosevelt of Washington, D.C.

—Reprint from Santa Barbara Coin Club “Newsette”.

United States Silver Dollars

By CLIFFORD L. LISS, San Francisco

Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea

Every numismatist has one or more favorite series in which he likes to specialize. I have been attracted by the U.S. silver dollar which, of course, is the unit of measure in our coinage system. Every other coin, whether it is silver, nickel or copper, is still a part of the dollar or unit. It is interesting to make a display showing the dollar as a hub and the smaller coins making up the spokes of the wheel. Such a display can show the many changes that have been made in each denomination since the minting of U.S. coins began.

The first U.S. dollar was minted in 1794, and today it is one of the rarest coins in the dollar series. Minted under the Coinage Act of 1792, its silver content was 371¼ grains of pure silver or 416 grains of standard silver. This series, which started with the 1794 dollar, was minted in Philadelphia each year through 1804. The edge or rim on every coin in the series was stamped to read, "Hundred Cents One Dollar or Unit".

It is said that at least 84 obverse and 75 reverse dies were used in the minting of this series. There also were many combinations of dies, giving us, as near as can be observed, no less than 114 distinct die varieties.

The 1794 coin has on obverse Liberty with naked bust and long, loose hair. The next year we find Liberty with draped bust and long, loose hair, with two side locks drawn back and tied with a ribbon.

The very weak looking eagle on the reverse of the first issue was changed to a more powerful looking eagle when the 1798 dollar was issued with the Heraldic Eagle. This design resembles our Great Seal of the United States. The 1794, 1795 and 1796 dollars in the series were designed with 15 stars, representing the 13 original states plus the new states of Vermont and Kentucky. The sixteenth star was added to the 1797 dollar when Tennessee was admitted to the Union in 1796. When it was discovered that it was not going to be practical to add a new star as

each additional state was admitted to the Union, it was decided to return to the use of 13 stars representing the 13 original states. Because of the practice of using old dies until they broke, we find that the 15 stars showed up at later dates in the series, but on dollars after this series, 13 stars were used. On the Gobrecht pattern dollars, however, there are 26 stars in the field around the eagle, representing the 26 states of the Union at that time.

This first series of dollars was struck under the supervision of Henry Voight, a United States artist who had been engaged as chief coiner of the mint. The mint engraver at that time was Robert Scot, who had been appointed in 1793. In this series is our rarest dollar, that of 1804. This series, one of the most interesting, is one in which a collector would have to specialize if he hoped to complete it—if it were possible to do so.

From 1804 no silver dollars were minted until 1840, but before a new design was accepted, many pattern dollars were struck. Christian Gobrecht, who was born Dec. 23, 1785, and who had gone to Philadelphia where he had become an engraver of bank notes, seals and dies, was appointed assistant to the mint engraver in 1836. Gobrecht prepared 10 different dies for pattern dollars; four dated 1836, three dated 1838, and three dated 1839. All of these pattern dollars have on obverse a Sitting Liberty and on reverse a flying eagle. The many varieties of these pattern dollars came about by stars being added to the plain obverse, by stars being removed or added to the reverse field, or by the name of the engraver being added or removed from the obverse. Seven of these pattern dollar types have plain edges; three, milled edges. These pattern dollars are all very rare, the commonest being the 1836 plain edge with engraver's name on the base of Liberty and the eagle flying left in a field of 26 stars.

When in 1840 a new series was



1794 — Naked bust; long, loose hair. First U.S. dollar.



1795 — Draped bust; two side locks tied with ribbon.



1798-1804 Type — Heraldic Eagle reverse design.



Gobrecht Pattern Dollar

issued, it was known as the Sitting Liberty dollar, a few changes being made from the Gobrecht patterns. The obverse of Sitting Liberty was adopted with 13 stars around the border of the coin. The reverse was changed from the flying eagle to the more familiar eagle design with olive branch and arrows in talons and with the shield on breast. This series continued from 1840 through 1873. In 1866, the motto, "In God We Trust", was added to the reverse above the eagle. This series of dollars was struck each year during the period at the Philadelphia Mint; in 1846, 1850, 1859 and 1860 at the New Orleans Mint; and in 1859, 1870, 1872

and 1873 at the San Francisco Mint. The Carson City Mint also struck this series in 1870, 1871, 1872 and 1873. The rarest coins of the Sitting Liberty series are the 1866 with no motto above eagle, only two being known to exist, and the 1870S, of which the number struck is unknown. Other rare dates are 1851, 1852 and 1858 minted at Philadelphia and all Carson City dollars of this series.

There was a general revision of coinage laws in 1873. The bill that was passed Feb. 12, 1873, eliminated coinage of the silver dollar. In its place the trade dollar was provided, for use in commerce with the orient in competition with the Mexican peso. The obverse is of a Sitting Liberty which is a little different from the regular Sitting Liberty of the previous issue. This coin also has stars around the obverse, with "In God We Trust" engraved on base. The eagle on the reverse is very similar to that of the Sitting Liberty series, being a trifle smaller, with head pointed to the right, with wings inverted and with the shield removed from its breast. It also has the olive branch and arrows in its talons.

The weight of the trade dollar was 420 grains standard, compared to the 412½ grains standard of the regular dollars. The fineness was the same, .900, which means one part alloy to nine parts pure silver. The law authorizing the trade dollar was repealed in 1887. This is the only coin in the history of minting in this country to be demonetized. Since 1889, it has



1840-1873 Type — Seated Liberty; rev., eagle, shield on breast.



1873-1885 — Trade Dollar. Only demonetized U.S. coin.

been worth only its silver bullion content value. This value, controlled by the market price of silver, has varied between 45 and 73 cents.

From 1873 to 1878, these dollars were minted at Philadelphia, San Francisco and Carson City. From 1879 through 1883, proofs only were struck. A few proofs were struck in 1884 and 1885 as collectors' items only. These last two dates were unknown to collectors generally until 1908.

This series consisted mainly of one type only, although actually there are a few varieties, being caused by the leaves and berries being a little different on some of the dates. Other minor varieties are caused by the mint marks on some coins being small, the same mint mark on other coins of the same date being large. These mint marks sometimes are in the center, while on the same date mint mark may be to the left or a little high or low. The sheath of grain in back of the seat on some of the issues is not so bold as on others and the stalks are longer on some dates than on others. This coin was designed by William Barber.

By an Act of Congress, known as the Bland-Allison Act of Feb. 28, 1878, coinage of the silver dollar was started again in 1878. This new coin was designed by George T. Morgan, who had learned engraving and designing at the Royal Mint in London. This dollar has a few major variations and is truly a beautiful coin, with on obverse the head of Liberty

and on reverse the familiar eagle with full spreading wings. "In God We Trust" is engraved above the eagle's head. These dollars were struck at Philadelphia and San Francisco every year from 1878 through 1904; at New Orleans on all these dates except 1878; and at Carson City all dates 1878-1893 except the years 1886, 1887 and 1888. Known as Liberty or Morgan dollars, this series was minted from 1878 through 1904 and after a lapse of 16 years, when no dollars were minted, 1921 dates were struck at Philadelphia, Denver and San Francisco. Many of the Morgan dollars are found in circulation today.



Morgan Dollar, 1878-1921

The Morgan series of dollars has the same weight and fineness as the Sitting Liberty series, the weight being 412½ grains and the fineness .900. The outstanding variation in this coin is the 1878 Philadelphia dollar with the eagle having eight tail feathers on the first coins struck and seven tail feathers thereafter. All dates and mints were struck with seven tail feathers after that first year. There are minor variations that make the series interesting to die variety collectors, such as seven tail feathers over eight tail feathers, slanting or parallel arrows, normal and reengraved "R" in Trust, double outline "R" in Trust, small and large mint marks, date close to rim, date further from rim, open 9 in date, closed 9 in date and others.

The rarest coin in this series is the 1895 proof struck at Philadelphia.



Peace Dollar, 1921-1935

Although one or two of these dollars have been found in circulation, they are known only in proof.

Through the efforts of the American Numismatic Association, a Peace dollar was struck under the same law as the previous dollar. It was designed by Anthony de Francisci. Eight contestants submitted designs, the object being to provide a coin to commemorate the Declaration of Peace between the Allied Nations and the German government. The design submitted by de Francisci was accepted Dec. 19, 1921, and the new Peace dollar was placed in circulation Jan. 3, 1922. This series was struck at Philadelphia each year, 1921 through 1928; at San Francisco each year except the first, 1921; at Denver in 1922, 1923, 1926 and 1927. After a lapse of five years, this coin again was minted in 1934 at all three mints and in 1935 at Philadelphia and San Francisco. The 1935 dollar is the last U.S. dollar minted.

The obverse of the Peace dollar portrays a very young woman as Liberty. With wavy hair over her forehead and ears, she wears a crown with rays of light projecting up to the rim of the coin. "In God We Trust" is engraved across the coin, close to Liberty's throat. The reverse shows a powerful eagle resting on a mountain crag, with olive branch in talons.

To complete the story of United States dollars, a few words must be said about our only commemorative dollar issue. Designed by C.E. Barber and Paul Bartlett, this dollar was authorized March 3, 1899, was dated 1900 and is known as the Lafayette dollar. It commemorates the unveiling of the Lafayette Memorial Monument in Paris. This monument was donated by the people of the United States and was paid for mostly by the school children of this country. The obverse has portraits of Lafayette and Washington and the reverse the statue of General Lafayette. This dollar portraying George Washington is the first authorized coin to bear a likeness of one of our presidents.

The coinage of U.S. dollars follows: Lafayette dollars, 50,026; trade dollars, 35,965,924 and regular issue dollars, 855,611,127.

Under the Pittman Act of 1918, 270,232,722 regular issue dollars were melted.

United States Patterns

By A. KOSOFF, Encino

Every numismatist has one or more favorite series. I have derived much satisfaction from many experiences in my 27 years of professional numismatic operation, among them experiences involving certain series that caused me to class these coins among my favorites.

I suppose that my contact with the William H. Woodin estate, dating back to 1940, had a lot to do with making patterns one of my favorites. I'm sure my friendly associations with such men as Dr. J. H. Judd, Max M. Schwartz, Martin Kortjohn, F. C. C. Boyd, Adolph Friedman and other pattern collectors back in the early '40s added warmth to my pattern experiences. The acquisition of what was undoubtedly the finest collection of United States patterns in 1945 certainly made a hot pattern enthusiast out of me.

My many sales to King Farouk and finally the trip to Cairo to repurchase many of the rarities—these certainly were to influence my burning zeal. I hope the feeling is contagious so that you can share the fun and enjoyment I have derived from fondling and studying United States patterns.

The word "pattern" is from the same root as "patron" (Latin pater—father). As a patron ought to be an example, so pattern has come to signify a model. For our purpose, then, a pattern is a "coin" for which a design was proposed but not adopted.

The series of patterns actually covers trial pieces and experimental pieces as well. We know that the pattern itself was proposed but not adopted. The trial piece was proposed and the design was adopted. The "coin," however, was struck in a metal other than that used in the regular series, i.e., a half dollar struck in copper with the design used on the silver coin of that type.

The experimental pieces include those which by their very nature represent a radical change from the standard. Often the experiment was dropped, as with the gold dollar of 1836 or the 2-cent piece of the same year. Other times saw a modifica-

tion of the experimental piece to bring it into closer conformity with more customary and acceptable standards. A good example is the TEN CENTS of 1868, designed after the large cent.

Our three terms, then, are **patterns** (proposed, not adopted), **trial pieces** (adopted, struck in different metal), and **experimental pieces** (radical changes).

Confusion exists as to whether or not certain "coins" are really coins. The 1792 half disme, the Gobrecht dollar of 1836, the 1856 flying eagle cent, the \$4 gold piece of 1879—



these coins particularly are questioned. The yardstick is firm—legislation governs our coinage and substantiates the legality of our mint products as legal tender where it was intended that these products be used as money. Otherwise, they are not coins. Of course, common acceptance by collectors may make of them "numismatic coins" but actually they are not "legal coins."

Confusion set in at an early date. In 1789 our discussions turned to coinage but it was not until 1792 that presses were acquired and put into operation. In 1792 our mint produced half-dismes, dismes, and cents, as well as a half eagle in copper. The half disme and disme were struck in silver as well as copper. The cents included the "silver centered" one wherein a plug of silver was inserted to bring the intrinsic value of the coin up to par. Another variety omitted the center plug. The Birch cent also was minted in 1792, as was the half eagle, sometimes referred to as the Eagle Cent of 1792, (there being an eagle on a globe on the reverse.

President Washington, in an address to Congress on Nov. 16, 1792, stated, "There has been a small beginning in the coinage of half dimes (half disme) . . ." This is the basis for the contention that the half disme is a coin, not a pattern. If this were true then conceivably all of the 1792 patterns could be classified as coins. Now we must apply the yardstick — legislation making the mint issues acceptable as legal tender had not yet been passed; these products are not coins. The same is true of the Gobrecht dollar, the 1856 cent, the Stella — these are not "legal coins," although by the grace of Wayne Raymond, who provided suitable openings in his coin pages, these have become acceptable as "numismatic coins." Actually, all are patterns.

I emphasize this point because many of you (if you are still with me) realize for the first time that you are pattern collectors! And since you have been exposed to this fascinating series and now know it, perhaps you can be induced to pursue it further. I have been uncommonly successful in converting or diverting collectors to this series. I have the bewitching eye focused on you.

Let us return for a moment to the disme and half disme of 1792. You who collect dimes and half dimes, would not the acquisition of such an historical item enhance the value and enjoyment you derive from your specialty? Indeed it would.

Here perhaps is our first coin (according to Washington's statement) struck on the silver plate out of Washington's own home. Even the head is supposed to be that of Martha Washington. Historic? Indeed it is.

Now then, we have added the dime or half dime to our series (which up until then had the early designs such as the small eagle reverse, then the large eagle reverse and so on. Along about 1885 we got a bit tired of the Liberty Seated dime, which had appeared year after year with very little change, since 1838. We were happy when Barber designed a new dime in 1892, but why did they have to keep the same thing until 1916? Then more monotony from 1916 until 1946 when the Roosevelt dime was designed. One hundred and fifty years of dimes with so few changes!

Now we have added the disme, and

it adds lustre to this series. When was another new dime proposed? Let's go out and get one. In 1859 we have the well-known Transitional Pattern, another "numismatic coin" listed in the Standard Catalogue and Whitman's Guide Book. Dime collectors already own one or have it on their want lists (they, too, are pattern collectors, you see).

History creeps into the dime series when in 1863 a design (see AW 381), obviously intended to strengthen the government's printing of postage currency, was proposed. Those of you who collect fractional currency are familiar with these small notes in denominations of 5, 10, 25 and 50 cents, later augmented by the 3- and 15-cent releases. Remember, we were in the Civil War and metal was scarce; hence the use of postage (remember the encased postage stamps) and paper money.

Reference to Adams-Woodin (AW) book indicates that this "dime" of 1863 was struck in aluminum, silver, copper, tin and brass. (See AW 381, etc.) Let's buy a cheap one. AW 384 in silver-copper sells for about \$12.50. This is a common one — 27 pieces were struck. "Twenty-seven pieces?" you query, "—that's common? I paid \$15 for the regular proof dime and about 500 of these were struck!"

Now you are getting the point. Supply and demand — and the demand for patterns is growing. The supply, now more than adequate, will grow shorter and shorter. It doesn't take long to absorb this common issue — 27 coins.

What next? — 1864 regular dies in nickel, copper, or aluminum (AW 445, 6, 7). An interesting sidelight. How about that TEN CENTS experimental piece of 1868? Well, it's the size of the old large cent and has the same style Liberty Head. The reverse is the same, too, except for TEN CENTS within the wreath. It was struck in nickel, copper and aluminum (AW 669-670-671).

Along in 1869 and 1870 a number of "dimes" were designed. Three different Liberty Heads were suggested, as well as two different reverses. These were struck in silver, copper or aluminum. Some had plain edges, others were reeded. Suppose we pick up a few. Let's say a silver plain edge, another in copper with reeded edge, and perhaps a third

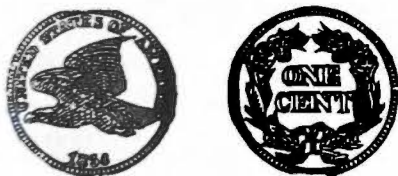
design in aluminum. These should cost an average of \$12 to \$15 each. In 1869 a further design had the usual Liberty Seated but the reverse was quite different, SIL. (ver) .9 NIC (kel) .1 (AW 792-3-4. See also AW 795, 6 for a variety).

Various mulings of Longacre designs as well as new ones by Morgan and Barber enter into the picture. The famous Washlady design of 1879 (AW 1624, 1625) is an ever-popular addition to a dime series.

I take this occasion to note the existence of a pattern dime of 1916 of the Mercury type. Various differences exist and will be noted in its appropriate place. Very likely this pattern is unique.

Obviously I cannot go into each series as thoroughly as I have covered dimes. If you specialize in cents, there are the silver-centered cent, the Birch cent, the eagle cent of 1792, the perforated cent of 1850 (AW 112), etc. In 1853 a cent was designed that looked like a quarter eagle. Pick one up in copper, bronze, nickel, etc. as low as \$15. In 1854 the large cent was on its way out. A design similar to the regular large cent but smaller—a about quarter size—was proposed. Another design replaced the Liberty Head with a flying eagle. Both of these dated 1854 make an interesting pair, representing the transition between the large cent with the Liberty Head and the small, flying eagle, cent.

Now we come to the 1856 cent— not a cent at all because the series was not authorized until 1857. Not only is the 1856 “cent” not a coin—



as a pattern it is a Rarity 1 in a scale from 1 to 15. Rarity 1 is the most common of all patterns. Yet this common pattern is selling for \$400 and rare patterns go a-begging!

Eighteen fifty-six witnessed several other pattern varieties of cents, and 1858 offered several others. Different eagles, different wreaths, Indian heads—these were the main designs.

You know how scarce an 1864 cent

with L on ribbon can be? How scarce would you imagine an 1863 cent with L on ribbon might be? Rarer indeed, but a lot cheaper! How about a copper-nickel cent of 1865? (These were discontinued in 1864.)

For variety, a cent designed after the 3 cents nickel coin appeared in 1868 and was repeated in 1869 (AW 820, about \$15). Another similar type was struck in 1881, and in 1884 a cent with a perforated center was proposed (AW 1704,5,6), as was a more polished attempt in 1885 (AW 1723). The last of the cent patterns appeared in 1896 (AW 1737,8).

If you collect silver dollars you will be fascinated by the 1795 dollar in copper struck on a large cent planchet (AW 18, unique), the various Gobrecht pieces, the Commercial Dollar, the Trade Dollar, the Metric Dollar, the Goloid Dollar—Longacre's designs, Barber's designs, Morgan's designs, the beautiful Schoolgirl Dollar, the classic Liberty heads—you have a treat in store.

I'm certain your editor is now sorry he asked for this paper—I'll flatter myself that it is only the space he is considering. Let me, then, simply mention a few interesting highlights that make the pattern series so fascinating.

- In 1814 a platinum half dollar was minted of the regular dies. This is the only time platinum was used at the U. S. mints. The half eagles of 1844, 1869, etc., are forgeries—not mint products.

- In 1818 the obverse of the quarter die and reverse of the large cent die were muled on a regular quarter.

- The rare 1827 quarter exists in copper; three specimens are known.

- The 1836, 1838 and 1839 Gobrecht dollars also were struck in copper.

- The first gold dollar was proposed in 1836. It was struck in gold, silver, and copper. You will recall this series was not adopted until 1849 and the design was entirely different from that proposed in 1836. The famous ring dollar with center perforation made its appearance in 1852.

- The same year, 1836, a 2-cent piece was suggested, this being the first time this denomination had received any attention. It was not until 1863 that the 2-cent piece was con-

sidered. The new design had the head of George Washington. Another design finally was adopted for the series which commenced in 1864. Interesting, too, is that fact that our motto, "IN GOD WE TRUST," appears for the first time in our coinage history with the introduction of the 2-cent piece. Also considered was the motto "GOD AND OUR COUNTRY."

- The half dollar series offers a great variety of design. I might add that specialists in the half dollar seem most likely to succumb to the suggestion that patterns be included as part of that series.

- The 1849 double eagle is listed by Adams-Woodin but actually this is a coin — only one minted, so forget it. Interesting to note that the Mormons struck a private \$20 piece in 1849 before the mint struck the regular issue. Also worthy of note: the original suggestion was to call the coin "Washington" instead of double eagle.

- Three-cent pieces, or trimes, appear in 1849 as patterns and again in 1850. In the latter year the regular series commenced. A 3-cent piece the size of the large cent was proposed in 1863. A Liberty Seated type trime was proposed in 1870 by Barber.

- Anthony Paquet's name appears as a designer in the late 1850's. He is important for it was his reverse design on the double eagle of 1861 which was adopted, authorized, and discarded so quickly that there are only two known specimens of the 1861S coin.

- Dr. Barclay's experiment with the 1860 half eagle offered a concave planchet to prevent the drilling and removal of gold from coins.

- Eighteen sixty-one saw the beginning of emphasis on the patterns and trial pieces for the gold coins series. This continued for several years.

- In 1865,6,7 the designs for the new nickel included a Washington head, Lincoln head, Liberty head, shield, etc.

- International Coinage Patterns were introduced in 1868. A Paquet design offered a 5 DOLLARS, 25 FRANCS. Similar coins were struck in France and Austria. The historical aspect is worthy of your attention. In 1874 a \$10 piece was struck with six equivalents in foreign currencies

inscribed on the reverse. It is interesting, too, to recognize that our Stella, or \$4 gold piece, was an attempt to reconcile our standard with that of the Latin monetary unit used by many nations in Europe and South America.

- The varieties of 1869 and 1870 mentioned during the consideration of the dimes exist in the quarter, half dollar and half dime series of those years.

- The pressure of nickel interests had a lot to do with the introduction of the 3-cent nickel and 5-cent nickel coinage in 1865 and 1866. Silver coins of each denomination already were part of our coinage system.

- The commercial need for something approaching the trade dollar became evident in 1871 and the designs introduce the words COMMERCIAL and TRADE.

- Barber's Amazonian design of 1872 was used on the dollar, half dollar and quarter.

- The varieties of 1873 trade dollars represent a venture receiving attention from collectors.

- The 20-cent piece, to become a regular coin in 1875, appears as a pattern in 1874 and considerable variety exists. Here, too, is a one-series collection possibility extending through 1875.

- 1877 was a great year for patterns. The round \$50 gold piece was proposed (AW 1498-1501). Half dollars of this year produce a number of interesting varieties.

- 1879 saw the Stella and quintuple Stella proposed.

- The 1882 nickel without CENTS is a popular coin, as are the various 1883 pieces without CENTS, etc.; 1883 nickels provide another one-series collection possibility.

- Several patterns of the 1907 gold coins were prepared by Augustus St. Gaudens; all are very rare. The very high relief double eagle, selling at \$5000, is the most common of these rare patterns.

- A nickel with Washington's head was proposed in 1909 and 1910.

- Patterns of 1916 exist in silver. There are perhaps 10 different varieties of the Liberty Walking half dollar; most are unique, although two or three specimens are known of some varieties. To my knowledge there is one dime in silver and one quarter in silver.



Short Life of U.S. Trade Dollar

By ED LANE, Oakland

In the entire United States coinage series there is no issue which has a more curious history than the Trade Dollar. No other issue has been such a victim of misunderstanding and general ignorance. The failure of the public, members of Congress, and even Treasury Department officials to grasp the idea that it was not a "coin" in the accepted sense of the word, but simply a commodity, silver, in an easy-to-trade form, led to confusion that doomed the piece prematurely. Its very name, dollar, was the principal cause of the confusion.

There certainly was adequate reason in the early 1870s to support the opinion that a U.S. trade piece might be successful. In the Orient, the 8 reales of the Republic of Mexico had inherited the prestige which the earlier Spanish-American 8-real pieces had enjoyed generally. In the middle of the nineteenth century the Mexican dollar had practically become the money of account of China and Japan in their foreign commerce with others, to the disadvantage of all other silver coins. In an experimental shipment, U.S. Standard Dollars, minted in 1859-1860, had been found unacceptable by the conservative Chinese. This meant that merchants and bank-

ers, primarily in San Francisco, who were engaged in oriental trade, were forced to buy large quantities of Mexican dollars in order to maintain a medium of exchange. The condition had, of course, many disadvantages. United States buyers of Mexican dollars were forced to pay, in gold, about 7½ per cent above technical parity of the London quotations for bar silver. Deliveries from Mexico were slow and unreliable. Perhaps most important, this arrangement made a market for Mexican silver while depriving domestic silver, of which there was an ever-increasing supply, of a legitimate outlet.

The idea gained further impetus when the Mexican dollar, having undergone changes in its design¹, though not in its intrinsic value, was having its acceptance resisted in China.

In California there were several proponents of an experimental trade coin, but perhaps the one man who contributed the most effort toward its accomplishment was Louis Garnett of San Francisco. Mr. Garnett, a recognized authority on money and an economist of some note, gave a

1. Peso, 1865-1873.

memorandum to the mint officials which contained all the essential facts and technical details which he thought would justify the experiment and insure its success. This information, in November 1872, was passed on to the Secretary of the Treasury in a report which said, in part, quoting from Mr. Garnett's original memorandum:

" . . . It is not proposed to make the new coin or disk a legal tender in the payment of debts, but simply a stamped ingot with the weight and fineness indicated. Its manufacture can, therefore, in no wise give rise to any complication with our monetary system, and neither in theory or principle differ in any respect from the manufacture of refined bars as authorized by law, except in being uniform in weight and fineness. The proposed coin or disk should weigh 420 grains and contain 378 grains of pure silver,² the difference of 42 grains representing the alloy of copper, and the weight and fineness to be stamped on the reverse of the coin. . . . In the event of the issue of the proposed coin it will be well to give it a title, as for instance "Silver Union", differing from the coins representing our subsidiary and dollar of account."

It is noted that the suggested name was not "Trade Dollar" but "Silver Union". In other correspondence the title "Silver Arbiter" also was suggested.

A number of designs were made and considered prior to the report to the Secretary recommending the coin. One basic design reached the pattern stage in 1872. It was struck with the titles "Trade Dollar" and "Commercial Dollar" opposite the Longacre dollar obverse and the standard dollar obverse of the year. The title "dollar" was so completely associated then, as now, with silver coins of that size that Mr. Garnett's good suggestion of a different title apparently never was given serious consideration. At least, no other title appears on any of the patterns which were struck prior to the issuance of the accepted design. In regard to patterns, it might be assumed that the "Commercial Dollar" patterns with the obverse date 1871 (AW 1116, etc.) actually were struck late in 1872, since there is no evidence that a coin of this weight and fineness had been even suggested as early as 1871. The pattern series of

Trade Dollars in 1873, incidentally, is quite a large and interesting one, with several reverse designs struck in combination with seven or eight different obverses.

The accepted design was a happy choice. The work of William Barber, then chief mint engraver, its beautiful obverse is a real credit to the U.S. coinage series. Though the elder Barber was for 14 years employed at the mint as a designer and engraver, and in that time achieved an eminent reputation as a medalist, the Trade Dollar is his lone contribution to the regular coinage. The basic design of its reverse also was used on the short-lived silver 20-cent piece.

On Jan. 17, 1873, a Senate amendment to the Coinage Act of 1873 provided for unlimited coinage of the Trade Dollar. It simply was added to the subsidiary coinage and, through obvious oversight, the clause at the end of the section, " . . . should be a legal tender for the sum of five dollars", was not altered to except it. Thus the ingot was given legal tender which no one ever had intended for it. It also was authorized to be coined for the public on the same basis as gold coinage and other silver ingots, for a charge of one-fifth of 1 per cent. The Coinage Act, which for nearly four years had been discussed, debated and amended in Congress, finally achieved enactment on Feb. 12, 1873. The legal tender status of the Trade Dollar was not important at that moment, since its cost on the "free coinage" basis mentioned was more than \$1.04. That difficulty was to come later.

Coinage began in July 1873. Demand was slow to moderate at first, naturally, since there was no assurance that the piece would meet with acceptance in the Orient.

The Chinese government made official tests and assays of the first shipment. The results were made public in a proclamation:

" . . . There has lately come to Hong Kong a newly coined American Eagle Dollar, called the 'Trade Dollar', and Sir Brooke Robinson, the British Consul, having requested that officers might be appointed to assay it, in concert with an officer from the British Consulate, when, taking the Haikwan Tael of pure silver as the standard, an outturn was obtained of fully 89.61 — or Taels 111.6 of this new Eagle Dollar are equal to 100 Haikwan Taels of pure silver. Minutes of the assay were drawn up in proof thereof.

For the convenience of Traders and people, therefore, this coin should be allowed to be

2. The Mexican dollar was 377¼ grains fine silver, which would give this issue about 2 mills more intrinsic value. It also was hoped that uniform weight and fineness and superior artistic workmanship would be to its advantage.

tendered in payment of duties at the rate of touch obtained at the assay, and to come into daily circulation. It becomes the duty then of the Viceroy and his colleagues to issue a Proclamation on the subject for general information.

This proclamation, therefore, is for the information of you merchants, traders, soldiers, and people of every district. You must know that the 'Eagle Trade Dollar' that has lately come to Hong Kong has been jointly assayed by officers specially appointed for the purpose, and it can be taken in payment of duties, and come into general circulation. You must not look upon it with suspicion. At the same time rogues, sharpers, and the like, are hereby strictly forbidden to fabricate spurious imitations of this new Eagle Dollar, with a view to their own profit.

And should they dare to set this prohibition at defiance, and fabricate false coins, they shall, upon discovery, most assuredly be arrested and punished. Let everyone obey with trembling! Let there be no disobedience!"³

Impressive sounding as this proclamation was, "it was no patent guarantee of success. The British colony of Hong Kong had issued a Dollar in 1866. It, too, had been accorded official approval and legal tender. But it had not been granted acceptance by the public at large and had been discontinued two years later.

In 1877 the U.S. Consul at Hong Kong reported to the Secretary of the Treasury regarding the status of the Trade Dollar, quoting opinions of the two leading foreign banks in China, the Oriental Bank and the Hong Kong & Shanghai Banking Corporation.

"The United States Trade Dollar has been well received in China and is eagerly welcomed in these parts of the country when its true value is known. It is legal tender at the ports of Foochow and Canton in China and also at Singapore and Saigon. Although not currently legal in this colony, it is anxiously sought after by the Chinese and in the bazaars is seldom to be purchased. In proof of the estimation in which the Trade Dollar is held in the south of China we need only state that the bulk of direct exchange business between San Francisco and Hong Kong (which is very considerable) is done in this coin, the natives preferring it to the Mexican dollar. It is the best dollar we have ever seen here, and as there can be no doubt of the standard of purity being maintained, it will become more popular day by day and we feel it ultimately will find its way into north China where the people are more prejudiced against innovations."

Both of these banks were English corporations and it was not flattering to English pride to have the U.S. coin so successful on the same ground where the earlier Hong Kong Dollar had failed. Many felt that this was the real reason why legal tender had

been withheld from the Trade Dollar by the British in Hong Kong. It circulated, however, and was preferred in trade despite lack of official recognition. It is noteworthy that the new Japanese silver yen of 1874 bore devices indicating its weight and fineness, an innovation of the U.S. piece, and the Japanese Trade Dollar of 1875 used the identical weight and fineness as well as the same title.

With this fine beginning and with a bright future prospect, it seems a little sad that this beautiful disk was scuttled at home.

In 1873 the silver market had started to slip. This had been caused by a general world movement away from bimetallism and toward gold as a single money standard. This, in turn, had been caused by trade expansion and a resultant world shortage of gold as well as increased silver production. Because the Trade Dollar was purely "commodity money", this did not hamper it as an international medium of exchange. It merely represented less wealth as the market receded. Its cost at the mint in 1876 was down to 90 cents.

It was inevitable, of course, that the legal tender status of the coin should be seized upon by domestic silver producers. An attempt to flood the mint with bullion for conversion to Trade Dollars was thwarted by prompt Congressional action on July 22, 1876, which repealed the legal tender provision and instructed the Secretary of the Treasury to restrict coinage to the supply actually needed in oriental commerce. The demand in oriental commerce continued to grow, however, and coinage for the next two fiscal years continued to accelerate.

The end, though, was in the air. As silver continued to fall, and as Trade Dollars dropped nearer to 80 cents, some of them were bound to find their way into the hands of the unsuspecting. It is even charged that unscrupulous importers (and bankers) used them in wage payments to their uninformed employees. There was certainly never any large number passed as standard dollars, but there were some, and when the silver bloc (with the "Standard" dollar safely reinstated) put the pressure on the Secretary in April 1878, he used this as evidence that there was an excessive supply. Then, with the authority given him by Congress two

3. A Special Proclamation. Tung Chih 12th year, 9th moon-day (October 1873).

years earlier, he ordered regular coinage suspended. It never was resumed. Proofs were struck at Philadelphia, of course, until 1883. And for a couple of years after that in a small, unofficial way by (we are told) certain profit-loving workers at the main plant.

The ratio of domestic and foreign specie being exported at the time coinage was suspended was 82 per cent domestic and 18 per cent foreign. After suspension this ratio was inverted. The Mexican dollar, in the meantime, having reverted to its old 8 reales form, resumed its former position in south China.

A few farseeing speculators were convinced that with regular coinage ended the government would, eventually, redeem what Trade Dollars were still about. After quietly buying up, at a proper discount, what could be found, they started a cry of justice for innocent victims (themselves) of the Trade Dollar. In 1882 they succeeded in pushing a redemption bill through the House. The Senate, though, threw it out. Finally, on March 3, 1887, success was theirs.

Trade Dollars (unchopped) were redeemed at par with Standard Dollars for six months, and authority for coinage was repealed. It should be noted, to his credit, that President Cleveland did not sign the bill. Under this Act the Treasury redeemed \$7,689,936 worth of these worthy but misused ingots at a dead loss of \$1,800,000.

So ended the Trade Dollar, not a failure (which it too often is called) but a victim. It is obvious that this fate was not unavoidable. Given intelligent authorization and proper administration, the issue never would have seen domestic circulation and could have had a long and successful career.

* * *

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Lincoln Cent Is Here To Stay

Two rumors, one that the new Lincoln cent is lopsided, and the other that the "o" in the word "of" should be a capital rather than a small letter, have been spreading ever since production began in January. Some folks have said that as a result of these government "blunders", the cent will be withdrawn from circulation.

Leland Howard, mint director, said March 10 that no mistakes were made in design or manufacture.

Howard admitted that the rim is thinner on the new coin at a point right below Lincoln's shoulder. But so is the rim on the old coin—and at the same point, he said. "The metal needed to form the head and shoulder has to come from somewhere. Normally it comes from the closest point—the rim right below the shoulder. Hence, the rim is narrower at this point," he said. But the

rumor that the coin will be scrapped because it is lopsided and won't stack is false. Lopsided, it will stay.

Rumor that the "o" in "of" on the new reverse is an error probably was started either because all remaining letters in the legend are capitals, or because all the letters on the old Lincoln cent were capitals.

Frank Gasparro, Philadelphia Mint designer, said Feb. 12 that he had precedent for changing the letter style, pointing out that the "o" in the word "of" is a small letter on the Franklin half dollar, the former Liberty half dollar, the regular silver dollar and about a dozen commemorative coins. Gasparro said he thinks the small "o" makes the coin more attractive from an artistic standpoint, and that a small letter can be used because "of" is a preposition rather than a noun.



QUARTER TALK

By RETA L. HARTSON, El Sobrante

Years ago I was dug out of what is known as a silver mine, located in Colorado. An Irishman by the name of Bill O'Neil found me. You should have heard his whoops of joy when he discovered my hiding place. Bill took me home to show his wife, Nora.

Because I was a good find and part of a rich vein of silver, Bill sold me along with the rest of his claim and arrived on what he called "Easy Street" as a result of the sale.

Along with other pieces of silver ore I left my mountain home, traveled over nasty roads, and finally reached my destination which was a smelter. Whoo, man! If ever there was a hot place, that was it! Until then I had never known anything but the cool of the beautiful Colorado mountains; then, the warm, pleasant home of Bill and Nora. This place was so hot that all the pieces of quartz sweated and bubbled and finally became liquid. It was here that the dross was separated from the silver. That wasn't the end of it, no sir. We lost our purity and were mixed with some alloys, then molded into silver bars before we were allowed to get cool. When that process was over, we had a birth date stamped on us. Next we were packed into dark boxes which were marked "for coinage".

The trouble with most people is, they never tell you anything. Without a by-your-leave they loaded us onto a noisy, whistling thing called a train. Here we banged around in our dark boxes until we were all unhappy. This eventually came to an end and we were unloaded and given a rough ride to a place called a mint. It evidently

was an important place, so we were content to be stored and seemingly forgotten.

All good things come to an end and we were taken out of our safe hiding place, put into a big kettle and brought to white heat. We were poured, then cooled a bit, squeezed almost out of existence, and allowed to get cold. We were moved several times, then found ourselves ready to be made into quarters. We were stacked near a noisy machine. Here we sat for a short time before we were fed into one end of that machine, and when we came out of the other end we were called blank planchets.

They still were not satisfied with what they had done; they fed us into another machine where we were slapped in the face and struck on the back. This hard hitting process left imprints all over us. I was so glad they left my thinking ability intact, and my voice, so I could tell you this story of my life.

As soon as I could get my breath I took a look at myself. On my obverse I had a picture of Liberty, who was standing, wearing long drapery. Her left arm was upraised, bearing a shield on it, in the attitude of protection, from which the cover is being drawn. The right hand bears the olive branch of peace. Liberty is stepping through a gateway into the sun—an emblem of a new era for the United States. At her waist are these beautiful words "In God We Trust". Down each side, near Liberty's waist and along her legs are seven stars in one row and six in the other row. At

the end of the row on the left side is my mint mark; below that the year in which I was minted—1917. The designer's initial is located above and to the right of the date. I heard them say a designer by the name of Herman A. MacNeil did me up proud. I know he did and I'm so glad, because way up there in the mountains I had dreamed that someday I would be something special; and now I was.

On the reverse side they printed across the top of me "United States" and just under that "Of America". Between the spread wings of the eagle and in smaller letters is "E Plvribvs Vnvm". Around the rim on one side are five stars, with five stars in equal balance on the other side; and just under the body of the eagle are three stars. Under this are the words "Quarter Dollar".

As you now know I was made into many pieces called quarters. In fact, that year, counting my entire family, there were 6,224,000 of us made in the mint at Denver. We were a happy and handsome family, with our D mint on the obverse of us. I imagine so many of us were minted because our country was engaged in World War I, a terrible war that was to end all wars—or so we heard.

Without warning, forty of us were wrapped into a paper by another one of those machines. Next we were packed into a bag and sent to a Federal Reserve Bank. What happened to the others in that wrapper with me, I don't know, but later I was given to a cashier; he in turn gave me to a man who cashed a pay check. That man tucked me into his vest pocket where I rode around all day; then he took me home and gave me to his wife, Lilli. After admiring me, she tucked me away and started her hoard.

There is one thing I especially liked about my new home. That was the discussions I heard about figures and science of all types. Henry, Lilli's husband, worked with figures all the time. One day he discovered a clue to an extension of present day figuring. He was working with atoms when this new vista opened up to him. When he came home from work he worked on his "pet project", figures and a new way to use them. This went on for years. World War I ended and Henry and Lilli moved to the West Coast. Now I heard more

of the talk as Henry and his friends would gather in the library, where I was hidden with the rest of Lilli's hoard; they talked and argued and discussed many branches of science. Or Henry would pace the floor, and as he paced he talked to himself. Every week end there would be discussions and always it came back to mathematics.

There was much for me to think about and before I knew it World War II was upon us, and still Henry's problem of mathematics was not quite solved. There were things to be proved; an important gap to be bridged. Then came the hush, hush of the atom bomb. Henry was working on it along with other top men.

World War II was coming to a close when Henry came home one day filled with high excitement. He had, he believed, found the key to his new system of mathematics. He worked long hours and Lilli had trouble getting him to rest and to eat.

Those were exciting days, those days before the tragedy. For a fraction of a moment an over-worked, extremely tired man, hesitated, stumbled. The glass vial slipped out of his hand, and fire started. Henry flung his body onto it, to save the others and the work of years that had been given to this atom project. For three days his life hung in the balance, then he regained consciousness long enough to get Lilli's promise to turn his work over to Uncle Sam, where he believed someone else could fill in and complete it for the benefit of all mankind. After this assurance Henry spoke to Lilli of his love for her, that he had no fear of death. A beautiful white light illuminated his way—he was going home. Thus gently, with great faith, he stepped across the threshold to another world.

World War II ended. Lilli left me in her secret hiding place until 1960. That year she found a friend who was a numismatist. This friend was building a set of Standing Liberty quarters, and also a set of my distant relatives, the Walking Liberty halves. Lilli let her friend go through the secret hoard and traded coins for those of the same value. I was fortunate to be one of the quarters she chose, thus was my whole life again changed.

My new mistress thought of coins in terms of U.S. history, and of the

value of the romance of coins. She brought a handful of silver coins home from her safety deposit box, and added me to them. She arranged, rearranged us and did it all again. She gathered us up, tucked us into separate envelopes, and took us for a ride. Next thing we knew, we were on display at a coin show. She had bits of information about us on little pieces of paper, which told something about our obverse and reverse sides. Glory be! We won her a prize ribbon!

My new mistress made a traveler out of me—and I loved it. We have seen quite a number of different towns and cities. I love to travel and to hear all the gossip among my

friends and relatives. You'd be surprised at the things we coins hear! Many times I think it is a good thing that we cannot speak English so that you could hear what we say.

Coin shows are thrilling and exciting. We never know until the very last moment if we will win a ribbon, a medal or a plaque, or nothing at all. If we don't win, my mistress just says "Okay. We'll try again."

It took thousands of years for my original formation—many more years before I was discovered in the Colorado mountains. If one is permitted to be proud, then I am proud; proud to be a United States Standing Liberty Quarter, a coin of beauty for a truly great country.

Trends in Standard Issue Coins

By LESLEY G. LODGE, San Francisco

Since the inauguration of the first United States Mint in Philadelphia in 1792, there have been many changes in the designs of our standard issue coins, ½ cent to \$1. Yet, how many of us have studied or even bothered to consider these changes? Do you realize that at present our standard issue coins all may be classified as "memorials"?

The original law specified that the eagle was to appear on the reverse of our coins.

This was followed through on the silver dollars from 1794 to 1935 (since which time none has been minted, nor is it likely that any will be for many years, if ever). The half dollar carried the eagle from 1794 to 1947; the quarter dollar from 1796 to date, and it is interesting to

note that this is the only coin now being minted which bears a full-size replica of an eagle. The dimes portrayed the eagle from 1796 to 1838; and the half-dimes or 5-cent pieces from 1794 to 1837. At no time did the eagle ever appear on the ½-cent, 2-cent or 3-cent pieces. The Flying Eagle cent carried it on the obverse for but two years — 1857 and 1858. This is the only 1-cent piece to portray the eagle.

On most of our coins, from the first ones minted up to fairly recent dates, a figure of "Liberty" appeared on the obverse. She was portrayed in several ways: head and bust; seated; or merely her head. On one issue each of the quarters and halves, "Liberty" was standing. On

all of these coins, the designs of "Liberty" were from the imaginations of the various designers.

It was in 1859, nearly 100 years ago, that a startling change took place — the issuance of the Indian Head cents. This was the beginning of the change to a "memorial" type coin. It was not until 1909, fifty years later, however, that any other "memorial" type standard issue coins were minted.

The Indian Head cent is a true "memorial" to the many Indian tribes which at one time roamed over and controlled all of our country. The most surprising thing about this coin is that a check of the names of various Indian tribes discloses that the first letters of about 70% of them comprise the words "Indian Head Cents". For example: "I" (Iriquois), "N" (Navajo), "D" (Diggers), etc. The letters "N", "E" and "T" are the scarcest, and the letter "S" is the most common one. Every section of our country is represented by one of these letters and Indian tribes. Today the Indian Head cent has as great an appeal to collectors and non-collectors as any of our standard issue coins.

The Lincoln cent followed the Indian Head cent in 1909 — the 100th anniversary of the birth of one of our greatest, if not the greatest, American. This coin, with but minor changes, principally in the size and position of the letters VDB, still is being issued, and no doubt will continue to be our standard 1-cent piece for many years to come.

In 1913 our nickel or 5-cent piece appeared with the head of an Indian on the obverse (and as such is a memorial, the same as the Indian Head cent). On the reverse is a buffalo (or correctly, bison). From time far past, and no one knows how far back, these animals roamed in countless numbers over our great western plains. Their hides provided the Indians of that region with material for robes and for coverings for their dwellings. Their flesh provided the Indians with meat. With the coming of the white man, however, the slaughter of the buffalo commenced, and today there are but few of these animals remaining in our country. The portrayal of the buffalo is indeed a "memorial" to the West as it once was.

In 1938 the second change occurred on the 5-cent piece, and it became the third of our present standard issue coins to portray another great American, Thomas Jefferson, one of our patriots of Revolutionary War days. The reverse depicts his home "Monticello", which still stands and is a mecca for many tourists when visiting the State of Virginia.

The dime or 10-cent piece was the fourth of our coins to change over to the "memorial" type. In 1946 the portrait of Franklin D. Roosevelt was placed on the obverse. This has been the most controversial of our Americans to be placed on our coins, inasmuch as FDR, as he usually was called, was loved and revered by millions, and equally hated and despised by others. Only time will tell where FDR takes his place among our great Americans.

In 1932 our 25-cent piece was changed. The portrait of George Washington is shown on the obverse. As the date marked the 200th anniversary of his birth, the coin originally was intended as a commemorative. None was minted in 1933, and in 1934 it was adopted as the standard issue.

In 1948 the last change was made — on the 50-cent piece. The portrait of another great Revolutionary War figure, Benjamin Franklin, appears on the obverse. And, most fittingly, on the reverse is the famous Liberty Bell. (You will note that earlier in this article it was stated that the quarter is the only coin still to portray the eagle. This statement is not entirely correct, as on the reverse of the Franklin half dollar is a very small replica of an eagle. Have you ever noticed it?)

From the foregoing it can be seen readily that our standard issue coins may properly be classified as "memorials", inasmuch as all of them bear portraits of past Americans. Only the 1909 Lincoln cent and the 1932 Washington quarter, however, can be considered as commemoratives.

As a point of speculative interest — which of our present coins, 1-cent, 5-cent, 10-cent, 25-cent and 50-cent pieces, will be considered for a change in design some time in the future? If and when this is done, what will the change be?



Wings Over America

By RETA L. HARTSON, El Sobrante, Calif.

The following poem was taken from Dave Garroway's article in the July 1960 issue of McCall's magazine and the closing lines are important to the opening of my article. Mr. Garroway did not know to whom to give credit for the bit of poetry; consequently, I cannot do so either.

THE DOLLAR AND THE CENT

A big silver dollar and a little brown cent,
Rolling along, together they went;
Rolling along the smooth sidewalk,
When the dollar remarked, for the dollar
could talk,
"You poor little cent, you cheap little might!
I'm bigger and more than twice as bright.
I'm worth more than you, a hundredfold,
And written on me in letters bold
Is the motto drawn from the pious creed,
'In God We Trust,' which all can read."
"Yes, I know," said the cent, "I'm a cheap
little might,
And I know I'm not big, nor good or bright.
And yet," said the cent, with a meek little
sigh,
"You don't go to church as often as I."

Few of us realize that long before our nation had its beginning it was spoken of and prophesied in Biblical times. Isaiah prophesied that the Eagle should be the emblem of the new world, and that as long as we, this new nation, kept it aloft, our land would be free. Isaiah spoke of our country as "The land overshadowed with wings."

In Ethiopian ancient records there also was a prophesy in regard to our nation. It was about as follows, and I quote from memory, "Across land ly-

ing to our west and across a vast body of water from us there shall rise a new nation, whose land shall be overshadowed with wings, and whose monetary system shall revere and honor God. It shall be known as a new world in a new age and with a new dispensation."

Ours is not the only country of the Eagle. Egypt, which is known as the land of beginnings, also means or signifies the Eagle. To the south of us lies the land of our neighbor, Mexico, which is symbolized by the same Eagle overpowering a serpent.

Designers of our coins have shown the Eagle with spread wings, symbolic of "The land overshadowed with wings". Designs of our coins seem to disclose significant facts. Let us look at our coins. The greater percentage of them have Eagle with spread wings, holding arrows in one claw.

The Eagle is alert, strong, swift, keen of eye, fiercely protective of her own; and has endurance. Also its home is high up on the crags where it can look out over the terrain and easily see its friends or enemies.

At the turn of this century, American internal and external strife was pretty much settled. Our country stepped up the pace in creativeness and productiveness. Inventions for better production in factories and on farms were brought from the dream or visionary state into reality. It will

have to be admitted that some of these inventions and productions were to become greatly improved and serve in the dark days that lay ahead.

The year 1907 saw the minting of the first new coin of this century. It was the beautiful \$20 Saint-Gaudens gold piece. On reverse is the Eagle in easy flight; there are no arrows—which could signify a nation at peace.

A new Indian Head gold coin appeared in 1908. Again the Eagle on reverse, without arrows. Even though the wings are folded, the Eagle is bold, aggressive and alert. It seems to be silent acknowledgment that though our nation was at peace, she was alert and ready to protect her own.

The Morgan or Liberty Head silver dollar has the Eagle with spread wings and arrows clutched in claw. These silver dollars no longer were minted after 1904, until 1921 when they were issued again for the one year only.

It seems significant that here was a nation that wanted peace. The monetary system so spoke. The nation did want peace and in 1909, when a new cent was introduced, it carried the portrait of Abraham Lincoln; on reverse, wheat, the staff of life.



Three more newly designed coins appeared in 1916: Mercury dime, Standing Liberty quarter and Walking Liberty half dollar. The reverse of the Standing Liberty quarter has the Eagle in easy flight. The Walking Liberty half dollar shows the Eagle sitting with spread wings; alert and fearless, and with unlimited vision from the mountain crag.

America was alert and deeply aware that her vision needed to be clear; for the time of war was now slowly drawing its noose around her neck.

Herman A. MacNeil, designer of the Standing Liberty quarter, and A. A. Weinman, designer of the Walking Liberty half dollar, do, I believe, express their hopes and fears in their

designs for these two coins. Weinman, on the reverse of the Mercury dime, placed the bundle of sticks bound together. America was building a strong nation, welding it together, and with the European situation as it was,



America needed to build and to stand closely bound together.

If one goes no further than the Red Book in his search for the obverse significance of the Standing Liberty quarter and the Walking Liberty half dollar, he will be rewarded and his time will be well spent.

It is interesting to note that after 1907, most of the new coins omitted the spread-winged Eagle with arrows. The only coins to carry the spread-winged Eagle are the Washington quarter and the Franklin half dollar; but there are no arrows in the Eagle's claws on the Franklin half.

Let us look for a moment at the new designs on our coins: The 1909 Lincoln cent with wheat, the wheat being changed in 1959 to the Lincoln Memorial; the Indian Head nickel of 1913 with buffalo on the reverse; the Mercury dime of 1916 with bundle of bound sticks; the Standing Liberty quarter of 1916 with Eagle in easy flight; and the 1916 Walking Liberty half with open-winged Eagle. In 1921 the Morgan dollar again was issued with the same design as in prior years. The same year also brought us the Peace dollar, which has the Eagle with folded wings; yet the Eagle is alert and high on a crag where she can see.

The first of the Washington quarters in 1932 show Eagle with spread wings and a bundle of arrows held with both claws. The year 1938 is memorable for the Jefferson nickel with Monticello on reverse. Then in 1946 came the Roosevelt dime with the torch of liberty; followed in 1948 by the Franklin half dollar with Liberty Bell on reverse.



\$2 1/2 GOLD, 1915

The Franklin half dollar with the Liberty Bell predominant on reverse carries a miniature Eagle with spread wings, which is to the right and in the shadow of the Liberty Bell.

The Mercury dime obverse carries another symbol. The wings crowning Mercury's (or Liberty's) cap is intended to symbolize liberty of thought. We not only have liberty of thought, but we enjoy liberty of expression of our thoughts. There is nothing that can travel as swiftly as thought. One can travel around the world in a few seconds in thought. Thought is speed—and this country, from the thoughts of free men, has

produced speed in travel by jet. Waiting to be utilized is the atomic-powered means of transportation which will travel more swiftly than jets.

Of our later issues of coins, two out of five bear the Eagle, even though one has it in miniature.

Let's review for a moment: Obverse: Lincoln, Jefferson, Washington, Franklin and Roosevelt. All fought for the same things for this nation, and all believed wholeheartedly in that for which they fought.

Reverse: The Lincoln Memorial, Monticello, Torch of Liberty and Liberty Bell with the spread-winged Eagle in miniature. Also, the spread-winged Eagle of the Washington quarter, clutching a bundle of arrows in her claws.

It causes one to wonder if there is some deep significance between the designs of our coins and the direction in which our country is going. At least it is food for thought.

Our Peace dollar is the only coin minted that carries the word 'Peace'; in some quarters, there is hope of it becoming the standard coin for international exchange and trade. If this comes to pass, one could well call this dollar a world-wide emissary of peace.

U.S. Commemorative Half Dollars

By LEONEL C. PANOSH, *San Diego*

Commemorative half dollars of the United States were designed by the finest artists and sculptors in the country, and are truly works of art; and in addition, taken collectively, they convey a very complete picture of the history of this country.

The earliest recorded discovery of America by the Norsemen in 1000 A.D. is depicted on the Norse-American medal. Octagonal in shape, it was intended to be a coin, but the word "coin" was changed to "medal" when the bill authorizing its issue was passed by Congress, and it commonly is included in any set of commemorative half dollars.

The Columbian half dollar, bearing the portrait of Columbus and with a representation of his flagship, the Santa Maria, commemorates the discovery of America in 1492, and was issued during the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago. Besides being the first it also is the most common of the

commemorative half dollars. More than 2 1/2 million were issued and there were two dates, 1492 and 1493.

The early colonization of this continent is well covered by many commemorative coins. Among them are the Pilgrim Tercentenary, showing the Mayflower under full sail; the Huguenot-Walloon Tercentenary, commemorating the 300th anniversary of the settling of New Netherlands by these colonists in their search for religious freedom; the Maryland Tercentenary, for the establishment of that colony by Lord Calvert; the Connecticut Tercentenary, with its fine design of the Charter Oak; the Roanoke Island commemorative, with its story of the attempt to colonize South Carolina by Sir Walter Raleigh and of Virginia Dare, first white child born here of English parentage; the Delaware Tercentenary, commemorating the settlement of that colony by Swedish colonists in 1638; Rhode Is-

land, Long Island, Albany, Hudson, York County, Maine and others. Taken together they form a pictorial history of this early colonization period. (It is interesting to note that in 1938 the Swedish government issued a commemorative coin, half-dollar size, commemorating the same event for which the Delaware half dollar was issued).

The Revolutionary War for independence is adequately and artistically covered by the Lexington-Concord Sesquicentennial half dollar commemorating the opening of hostilities; the Vermont for the victory at Bennington; the Columbia, South Carolina, for the defense of that city against the British fleet; and finally, the Philadelphia Sesquicentennial with its replica of the Liberty Bell in commemoration of final victory and independence.

Subsequent exploration and development of the United States are shown by the Fort Vancouver, Oregon Trail, Daniel Boone, Old Spanish Trail, Hawaiian, Texas and many other state centennial issues commemorating admission by them to statehood. The Civil War is recorded by the Gettysburg, Antietam and Stone Mountain half dollars.

The series is not limited to recording of discovery, exploration, battles and colonization. The completion of the Panama Canal is commemorated by the Panama-Pacific half dollar issued in 1915. The Oakland Bay Bridge shown on the half dollar of that name likewise adds a permanent record of the achievement of mankind, and the California Diamond Jubilee half dollar celebrates the 75th anniversary of the discovery of gold in California, one of the great historic and economic events of that century. The 100th anniversary of the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine is noted on the half dollar issued at Los Angeles in 1923. It is the only coin ever issued to commemorate a law regulating our foreign policy, testifying to the far-reaching effect of that famous piece of legislation which defined for all the world our position in the western hemisphere.

The four coins mentioned in the preceding paragraph are of particular interest to Californians, all having been issued in this state. The Cincinnati half dollar also is of unusual interest, since its commem-

orates the contribution made to music by the people of that city, and particularly by Stephen Foster whose portrait appears on the coin. The writer of such songs as "Old Black Joe", "Massa's in the Cold Cold Ground", "Old Kentucky Home" and many others dear to the hearts of all Americans, he is fittingly honored by the issuance of this coin.

Many of the coins serve more than one purpose or commemorate more than one event. Thus, the Columbian, besides commemorating the discovery of America also is a record of that first great exposition at Chicago. The San Diego exposition in 1936 has its coin which also has as its purpose to celebrate the discovery of San Diego Bay by Cabrillo in 1542 and the development of the city to its present beauty. The dates on the Elgin half dollar refer, not to that city, but to the year when the French explorers Joliet and Marquette first entered that territory.

Portraiture is an important part of the designs on many of these half dollars, and authentic likenesses of many of our presidents, explorers, statesmen and other men of note in our history are shown. Among these is that of Booker T. Washington on the most recent commemorative half dollar to be issued. The life and achievements of that universally admired leader of the colored race, and his rise from slavery in a cabin to the hall of fame, are fittingly depicted on this coin.

All coins are interesting, but none, in the opinion of the writer, are more artistic or more completely informative in their field than this series of commemorative half dollars of the United States.

Numismatics is sometimes defined as "the study of the histories of all nations through the medium of their coinage." Much of our knowledge of the history of ancient times has been derived from information taken from coins of that period which have been unearthed by archeologists. It is not so far fetched to imagine that centuries hence, historians of some future civilization to come may trace the history, culture and achievements of our people from a study of these very coins.



10-12

Doubled Die Lincoln Cent

By HARRY M. LESSIN, South Norwalk, Conn.

The 1955 doubled die cent, listed now for the first time in the thirteenth edition of the Guidebook, appears to present the only major "error" in the Lincoln head type with wheat reverse. Since its discovery in 1955 there have been brief but constant references to it in numismatic magazines, brought on largely by collector inquiries. Some significant facts as to the cause or reason of occurrence of the die producing them and the area in which discovery or circulation took place have since come to light. They are indeed fascinating and reveal, too, a record of

selflessness for the many collectors having a part in it.

The U. S. Mint already has expressed itself that this is genuine and was struck at the Philadelphia Mint. Needless to state, when the imperfect emissions were revealed on inspections, those appearing in assembly were rejected and the defective die immediately removed. Coinage dies are prepared by forcing, under pressure, a hardened steel hub (positive) into a softened steel blank. Three blows or pressings are required. If the hub is not accurately registered in the die after the first blow, a

doubled impression will result—in much the same manner that a manual but erratic striking of a metal punch will produce blurred or doubled impressions or images on the material to which it is being transferred. It was from such an obverse 1-cent die that this coin was struck.

Specimens came into prominence in 1955 in Massachusetts, in the area of the City of Greenfield. Before long collectors in neighboring clubs, combining their efforts, systematically pored through rolls and rolls of 1955 wrapped cents prepared for distribution by the member banks in the vicinity normally supplied through the Federal Reserve of Boston. They were aided in their efforts—plainly a task of remarkable proportions—to no small extent by a wholehearted cooperation of the banks—a rather amazing trait of many banks, particularly those in smaller communities. This search proved rewarding, specimen coins being discovered in the cities of Greenfield, Amherst, New Bedford, Northampton, Turners Falls and Springfield, to mention several, and in circulation as well. As to the latter they have since appeared in practically all of the New England States, and may be still turning up in change as the cent makes its “unscheduled” journey.

Now, what about the quantity that has been produced? That may never be answered. Whether because they already had been bagged with perfectly executed cents or their emission not immediately revealed or con-

sidered minor, or whether procedural methods at the Mint prevented absolute screening, the occurrence in uncirculated rolls—anywhere from one to seven coins turned up in any single roll examined in this fashion—suggests that while not abundant, they are obtainable. Collectors who embarked on the search shortly after their appearance may have concluded that the number probably released—based solely on the bags or rolls examined and the rate of find per roll, a somewhat conjectural method of count—was 3000. It will be interesting to observe if any will turn up in other areas, however remote, as the years intervene. In any event some 350 or more uncirculated specimens were retrieved by collectors on the hunt. Selling at first in local clubs for a dollar or less, demand soon outstripped the supply, resulting in higher recorded prices.

Not a “deliberate” variety as is the 1942/1 dime but more easily read, nor so easy to imitate as the 1937 3-legged Buffalo, the 1955 doubled die obverse Lincoln may prove to be a most interesting contemporary “error.” Its constancy of occurrence and the uniformity of all specimens from this die make it a true error as distinguished from coins formerly classified as freaks. In all specimens—and the writer has examined several hundred—the dies appear rotated by a handful of degrees. With the recent retirement of the Lincoln cent reverse, it now stands as the only major error or variety in this coin.

CURRENCY



CURRENCY

When the metals necessary for producing coins are in short supply, or the prices of them prohibitive, paper forms a cheap and very convenient substitute. The purpose of such notes is a promise to pay, but, unlike checks, bills of exchange, and promissory notes, there is no determined date for repayment.

Paper money is said to have been in use in China as early as the 9th century A.D. T'ang Dynasty. Marco Polo, who was the Court of Kublai Khan, 1275-84, gives a long account of the system of producing notes. The Great Khan, he tells us, "may truly be said to possess the secret of the alchemists as he has the art of producing money" by a special process from the base of mulberry trees.

Modern day paper money is rapidly eliminating most of the need for metal coinage as a medium of exchange. Since the days of the French revolution and the introduction of countless numbers of assignats to present, in which all countries now compromise sound economics with floods of paper money, and much of it of very dubious value. — There is no other form of numismatics that encompasses the arts, history and panorama of mankind as that of currency. The study of currency can in many ways relate more accurately the factual background of a country's economics, religion, politics, humanities, industries, and art.



TREASURY DEPARTMENT SEAL

Seal of the Treasury of North America, inscribed "Sigillum Thesaurus Americus Septentrio."

The Treasury of North America

By EDWARD R. BARNESLEY

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Well known to everyone is the vast circulation of our country's paper currency in astronomical figures; for example, the outstanding dollar bills alone number one and half billion. Much lesser known to the general

public is the strange fact that all of this great paper wealth is signed by the Treasurer of the United States, but is sealed instead by the seal of the Treasury of North America. This situation has existed for over a

century. To find out how this inconsistency occurs, we must first turn back to those historical records that deal with the formative years of our Republic.

Following the meetings of the First Continental Congress in 1774, the British colonies and provinces therein assembled were generally known by the simple, collective name of The United Colonies. This name is believed to have been a carry-over from that 17th Century league for friendship and mutual advice known as The United Colonies of New England.

In May and November of 1775, and February and May of 1776, the Congress emitted its first four issues of currency, or rather "Bills of Credit" as this paper money was more properly called. All of the various denominations, ranging from 30 down to one-sixth of a Spanish milled dollar, carried at appropriate places in their framed borders the name of the issuing authority, The United Colonies.



George W. Wait Collection

No country is indicated on this lowest denomination of Continental Currency, 1776.

Then on June 7, 1776, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia made his revolutionary motion that "These United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." His

wording is supposed to have been thus phrased because the term "colony" implied a certain distasteful status of dependence upon England, while the word "state" implied autonomy. Therefore, as the desire for independence was developing, most writers were already using the word "state" instead of "colony." Consequently, when a Congressional Committee was named to draft a declaration in support of Lee's resolution, it was logical to call it "The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen United States of America."

An interesting numismatic observation following review of these widely known historic facts is that the first three emissions of Continental Currency released after July 4, 1776, continued, nevertheless, to bear the inscription United Colonies rather than United States of America. This oversight was no doubt due to the exigencies of war plus the physical difficulties of preparing new cuts.

On September 9, 1776, the country's lawmakers decided "that in all continental commissions, and other instruments, where, heretofore, the words United Colonies have been used, the style be altered, for the future, to the United States." The next two issues, November 2, 1776, and February 26, 1777, continued to bear the appellation of The United Colonies in spite of the intent of this resolution. It was not until the currency issue of May 20, 1777, that the frames were in fact changed to read The United States in conformity with the resolution quoted.



George W. Wait Collection
Barbara R. Mueller Photograph
The United Colonies, 1777.

On November 15, 1777, the final draft of the Articles of Confederation was completed, but the document itself was not adopted and ratified by all thirteen states until three and one half years later. So the two series of Continental Currency emitted in 1778, although incorporating newly designed frames, did, nevertheless, continue to use the title The United States rather than the correct appellation The United States of America, as required by the Confederation.



George W. Wait Collection
Barbara R. Mueller Photograph

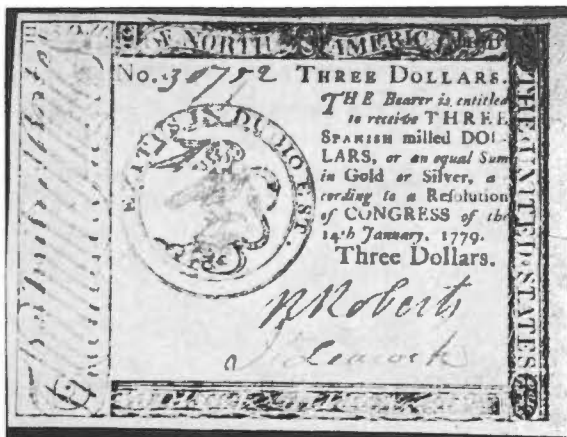
The United States 1778. This note is signed by James Wilson, who also signed the Declaration of Independence.

The Congress on September 26, 1778, appointed a Committee to "prepare a seal for the treasury and for the navy." Rev. John Witherspoon, Gouverneur Morris and Richard Henry Lee constituted this committee, and the seal they devised had a Latin legend which translates literally, "The Seal of the Treasury of North America." At least we assume that is the legend on the seal they designed, because the Journals of the Continental Congress fail to indicate that the said committee ever made a report. Subsequent research likewise fails to reveal when the seal of our Treasury Department was adopted. Most evidence indicates that the seal has never been adopted as such by either the Continental or the Federal Congress.

Many writers believe the Treasury seal was undoubtedly the personal handwork of Robert Morris, financier of the Revolution, even although he had not been appointed an official

member of the design committee. Positive proof of this thesis is lacking. In any event, whoever master-minded the job reflected a prevalent idea that the Treasury of the Continental Congress should in fact embrace the territory of the entire continent; viz, North America. There was, indeed, hope in certain quarters of the Confederation being greatly enlarged by merger with the Province of Quebec, the official name by which Canada had been known since 1764 when the British established civil government there. Continental Congress meant a Congress of the Continent, so why shouldn't our Treasury be a Treasury of the Continent; i.e., North America?

On January 14, 1779, Congress authorized its eleventh and final issue of Continental Currency in the amount of \$140,052,480. In conformity to the name of the Continental treasury as spelled out on its seal reputedly adopted a few months previously, new frames were designed reading, "United States of North America." This emission became, therefore, our only issue of paper money ever to carry this name of our country as such. The title United States of America was subsequently never carried on any of our 11 issues of Continental Currency. Paragraph No. 6 of the aforementioned enabling Resolution stated:



George W. Wait Collection
Barbara R. Mueller Photograph

The United States of North America, 1779.

"That for preventing the counterfeiting of the said bills, new stamps with additional checks be provided, and a sufficient number of proof

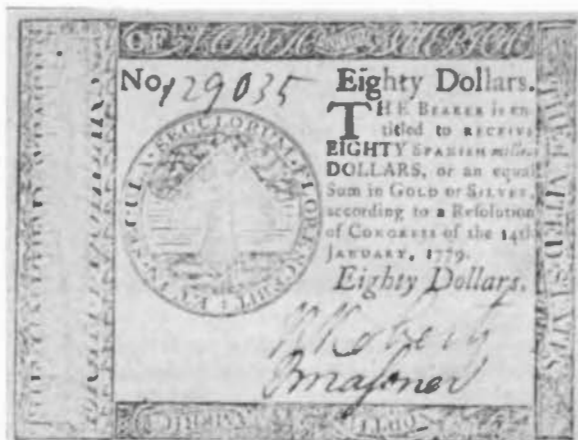
sheets struck, and sent, with the signatures of each signer, to the assemblies of the respective states, to be lodged by them under proper regulations in public offices in the several counties, towns, and districts, for the benefit of the inhabitants of the United States."

On February 20, 1781, Robert Morris was elected Superintendent of Finance, and on May 17 following he presented to Congress his plan for establishing The Bank of North America. On December 31, 1781, this institution, which played such a noble part in helping the new Republic through its early financial trials, was incorporated by Congress with a perpetual charter. It is interesting to know that this Bank founded by Morris now has 45 branches and flourishes as the largest institution of its kind in Philadelphia under the merged title of First Pennsylvania Banking and Trust Company.

Robert Morris seems to have been the principal public official who wanted to use the words "North America"—influenced possibly by his North America Land Company. After all, he probably figured, some day there might be a United States of South America or a United States of Central America. He induced Congress to set up the Mint of North America to help the Bank of North America stabilize the coinage and currency of the new country.

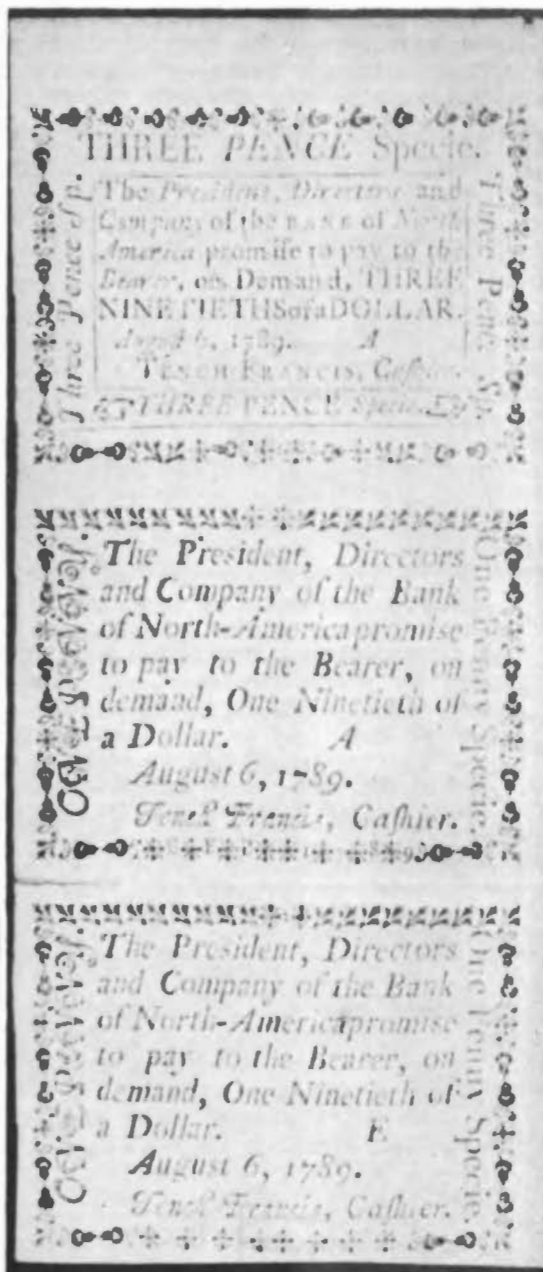
It was on February 21, 1782, that

Congress approved the establishment of this Mint of North America, but nothing really came out of the proposal other than the preparation of four pairs of coinage dies from which were struck the famous Nova Con-



George W. Wait Collection

Highest denomination of Colonial Currency on United States of North America note, 1779.



George W. Wait Collection
Barbara R. Mueller Photograph

Fractional notes of the Bank of North America, 1789. These were suggested by Benjamin Franklin, who supplied the paper on which his grandson, Benjamin Franklin Bache, printed them.

stellation pattern pieces in silver, all of which were dated 1783. It should be noted here that The Mint of North America had absolutely nothing to do with production of the popular "North American Token" dated 1781. These coins were struck in Dublin, Ireland, at a date much later than that indicated on their obverses. On February 8, 1783, Morris recorded in his diary that he had paid Jacob Eckfeldt five dollars and eighteen-ninetieths of a dollar "For Dies for the Mint of North America." Jacob was the father of Adam Eckfeldt, an employee of the United States Mint from 1792 to 1840, and a prominent figure in its early history.

The present Department of the Treasury can furnish no conclusive information as to why the Latin legend of its 1778 seal reading Treasury of North America was not changed upon final adoption of the Articles of Confederation on March 1, 1781, inasmuch as its Article I declared, "The style of this confederacy shall be The United States of America." Again, the Constitution which became the supreme law of the nation on June 21, 1788, clearly stated in its preamble that the people had ordained and established it for "the United States of America." Yet the old Treasury seal of North America continued on, unchanged.

Beginning with our first dollar bill in 1862, and excepting only some varieties of fractional currency, every single piece of paper money issued by the United States Government, totaling millions upon millions of dollars, have all been imprinted with the seal of the Treasury of North America, latinized and abbreviated to read, "Sigil. Thesaur. Amer. Septent." When our present Department of the Treasury was officially organized by authority of an Act passed at the first session of the first Federal Congress, the old outdated seal should have been corrected at that time to make it conform to the Constitution of the United States, but it wasn't. This "Act to Establish the Treasury Department" approved September 2, 1789, does not even mention the word "seal!" Evidently custom only decrees that the improperly worded, unadopted, hence, unofficial, seal of 1778, should be continued in use, because it has come down in the same form to the present day uncorrected.

What a strange anomaly it is that Congress has never seen fit, at even this late date, to adopt a seal which says in plain English that it is for the Treasury of the United States of America, and then use it properly to authenticate our great nation's astronomical paper wealth.

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Photography of Paper Money

By DR. FERENC GYULAI, Budapest, Hungary

*(Translated from German to English
by Kurt E. Loret, San Francisco)*

INTRODUCTION

Following is a chapter from a book now being printed—"Photography of Coins, Medals, Plaques, Orders, Seals and Paper Money". The illustrated paper money is from the collection of Emil Vask Banki, Budapest, photographed by the author.

LIGHTING AND BACKGROUND

The most important thing when photographing paper money is to have an evenly distributed light. The entire area of the money has to be evenly lighted, otherwise the picture will appear spotty. The paper money to be photographed must be parallel with the negative material, otherwise the parallel lines which are on paper money will show on the picture as converging or diverging and the regular parallelogram of the original will look like a trapezium.

The first step when photographing paper money is the arrangement of the lamps. The larger the size of the money, the larger the area which has to be lighted evenly. Therefore the lamps have to be placed at a greater distance.

Paper money, which in most cases has been in circulation, is usually crumpled. Also, the heat of the lamps will cause the paper to stay uneven on the board as certain parts of it will roll up. The paper never lays completely even. To prevent this the money has to be held down by a

glass plate. This glass plate must be a completely clean one, free of faults, evenly rolled, and the surface not wavy with higher or lower parts.

Any glass plate reflects light. It is important that a mirror-like picture of the lamps does not appear, or that any light is reflected, as either will spoil the photograph. Therefore, the lamps should be mounted to the sides and the light beam should fall on the paper with a 45 to 50 degree angle. Never mount the lamps right next to the camera, because in such a case the mirrored picture of the lamps will show up on that part of the glass which is covering the paper money. The mirrored picture of the lamp should fall on that part of the glass plate which does not appear on the print itself. In most cases the eye is able to detect such a mirrored picture or it shows up in the finder. By changing the position of the lamps, it is very easy to correct. Cut out an oblong sheet of paper in the approximate size of a brick and touch up the paper slightly in the middle with any oily or greasy substance. To attain an even light the lamps are mounted in such a way that the beams of the light from both sides are concentrated on the oily spot in the center of the paper. As soon as the oily spot disappears we have an even light. A Bunsen's light-meter shows the slightest variation of the light, which one cannot perceive with the naked eye.



Figure 1



Figure 2

An important part is played by the right background. Before taking the picture place the banknote on the background material, and press the note flat with a glass plate. For banknotes with a white border or notes of light color use a black background, otherwise the picture of the banknote will merge with the white photographic paper and the outline and correct size will not be shown clearly. Take into consideration that the difference in color between the paper money and the background must be as great as possible. Never use a gray background, because such a background does not contrast with the border of the banknote.

It is very important that all the designs on the banknote, even if they consist of different colors and shades, show up as black among the various colors. The different colors of the drawing should not show up in the same shade on the picture, because one should be able to distinguish clearly all color shades. The Brazilian note (figure 1) is very easy to photograph because the black shades on it are outstanding and its reproduction

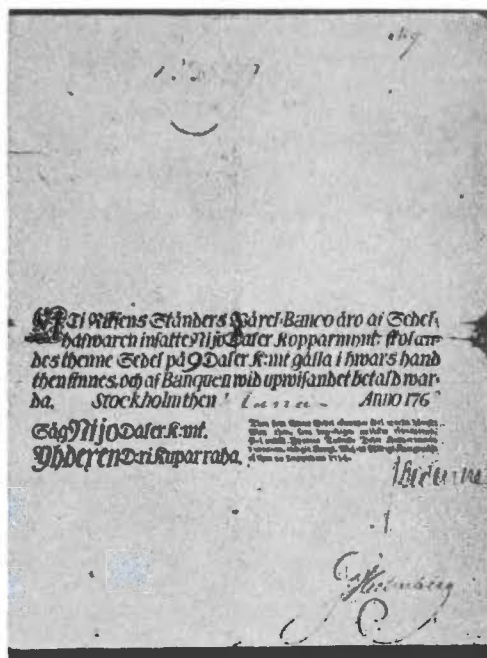


Figure 3

is no great problem. To reproduce the color shades in black and white it is necessary to use a negative material which is of very strong panchromatic sensitivity. Of utmost importance is the sensitivity toward a strong red, because such a color is widely used on much paper money. The Chinese banknote (figure 2) is of a flaming red base with a black overprint. The film ADOX-KB-14 which was used brought this out very well in the picture.

Attention should be given to correct exposure time; also the correct developer is of great importance. Over-exposure or over-developing will cause the lines to thicken and result in a poor picture.

Sometimes one wishes to photograph paper money which was made by an embossed printing process. Figure 3 shows such a Swedish banknote. The aforementioned manner of photography cannot be used because the embossed printing, which is a "dry stamp" or "seal" on the note, will not show up on the picture. To bring out such an embossed print, place the banknote on a black background and with the choice of two ways of using the right amount of light. Reduce the strength of the even light by mounting a sheet of tissue paper or a plate of ground glass before the four lamps of 40 W each; or light up the level of the paper with a very strong light



Figure 4

from the side, such as a spot light or a controlled light beam. The picture (figure 4) was taken with such a light and the embossed print shows up very well; also the inscription is readable, but the contrast is less than the previous picture (figure 3).

PHOTOGRAPHY OF WATER MARKS

Most banknotes are printed on special paper which contains watermarks. The majority of these banknotes are printed on both sides; very few on one side only. If interested in photographing the water mark only, or the banknote in such a way that

the watermark will show up in the picture, the thickness of the paper has to be taken into consideration and whether printed on both or on one side only.

There are three ways to photograph watermarks: (1) with the right choice of the background; (2) with direct light passing through the note; and (3) with indirect light (Callier effect).

(1) When photographing a thin banknote, which is printed on one side only and placed on a white background (figure 5), no watermark shows up, but the printing is clear and with strong visible contrast. By placing the same note on a black background the contrast between the white of the paper and the printing will be reduced, but the watermarks will become visible (figure 6). The printing is still readable.

(2) For direct light use two sheets of glass (glass plates). Place one sheet, supported from two sides, about 10 to 12 inches (25 to 30 cm) above the table and press the banknote with the second piece of glass. Cover the parts around the banknote with black paper, to prevent the light of the lamps from shining into the lens of the camera. Focus the light of the lamps from below in such a way (figure 7) that it covers all parts evenly.

(3) The indirect light (Callier effect) consists of a reflected (completely scattered) light beam which penetrates a material of different strength and thickness. It penetrates less in the thicker part and more in the thinner parts. The thinner parts, with



Figure 5



Figure 6

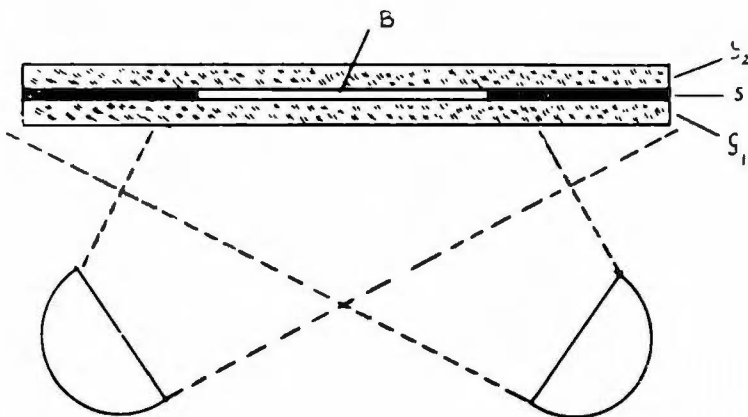


Figure 7

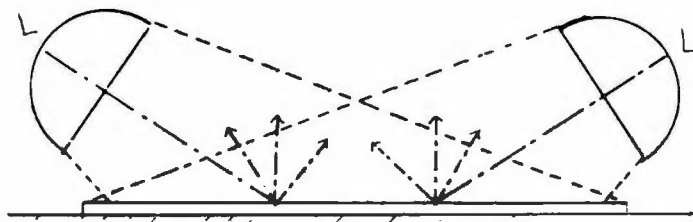
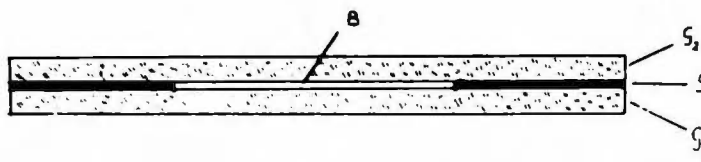


Figure 8



Figure 9



Figure 10

the watermarks, are penetrated with a strong intensity of the light and appear lighter on the positive picture. This is why the watermarks on black background on a one-sided printed banknote are darker (figure 6), while on the picture taken with the Callier-effect (figure 11) the watermarks appear much lighter.

To bring out the light with the Callier-effect place a sheet of white paper (matte) or cardboard on top of the table and shine the lights of the lamps evenly on it in such a way that the lightbeams are reflected to cover the object and pass through it.

To uncover counterfeit banknotes the photography of watermarks is of

the greatest importance. In many instances only the developed photo will show details of the photographed object, which one is unable to see with the naked eye. Specialists have many methods to reveal counterfeit notes. With different chemicals and rays (infra-red, ultra-violet, etc.) they can prove the difference between real and counterfeit banknotes, but not everyone has such equipment available. I shall present a simple method, which anyone with some knowledge of photography can use.

It is best to photograph a real and an assumed counterfeit banknote under identical circumstances. Instantly the counterfeit one will be evident.



Figure 11



Figure 12.

The best way is to photograph the banknotes from both sides; first placed on a background and lighted from above. Figure 9 shows a genuine Austria - Hungary "Zehn Gulden" banknote; while figure 10 shows a counterfeit one. The difference between the two notes can be seen at first glance. The drawings on the genuine one are much stronger, the contrasts more outstanding; and on the counterfeit one the ornamental decoration (a rose) above the "X" on the right side is a different drawing.

By taking a picture of both notes with the light of the Callier-effect the watermark on the genuine note (fig-

ure 11) becomes visible, for instance in the oval inscription under the figure "10" another figure "10" shows up in white, as well as various artistic drawings, and also the white watermark "Gulden". Figure 12 shows the fake note, taken by the same method but no watermark is in evidence. Something else is immediately noticeable on the pictures of both banknotes. The picture of the crumpled banknote taken with the Callier-effect shows the folds much clearer, which can be explained by the through-shining of the light. On the picture in figures 9 and 10 it is not visible at all, because both were taken with the regular reproduction method. The

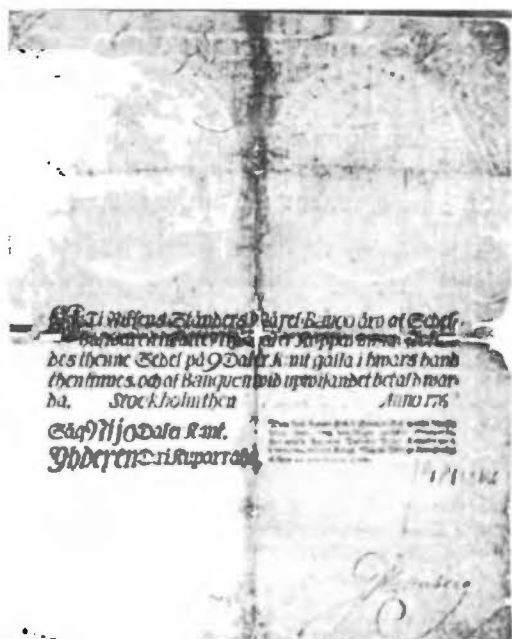


Figure 13

crumpled fold also gives proof that both banknotes have been in circulation.

By using the same method as shown in figure 7, with the same Swedish banknotes as shown in figures 3 and 4, not only the watermark will appear but also a "dry stamp" on the same strength in black. The impression will be that the embossed stamp is in the same level with the watermark and does not stand out (figure 13).

EQUIPMENT

Voigtlaender Bessamatic Rowi-reproduction mounted on tripod. Color-Skopar 1:2, 8/50 mm, with supplementary lens A + B and B + D; shutter opening 1:8. The set up taken by regular light used 4 ROWI original-reproduction lamps (with 40 W lightbulbs); the set up by reflected light (figures 11 and 12) used a Braun "Hobby Automatic" with 2 lamp-bars. Film Adox KB 14, AGFA (Leverkusen) Rodinal 1:80 at 21° C, developed 8 minutes. Jabo-Neofin tank with tilt agitation technic. Enlarged on hard-grade Ferrania paper.

KEY TO ILLUSTRATIONS

- 1—Brazilian barknote.
- 2—Chinese banknote, black print on red background.
- 3—Swedish banknote, issued 1762, photographed from above, therefore printing visible only, with strong contrast.
- 4—Same note, photographed with dark light from above and strong lights from the sides. Embossed seal is visible.
- 5—English 5 pound note, issued 1936. Photographed on white background with even light from above. Black print only with strong contrast is visible.
- 6—Same note on black background with light from above. Watermark underneath print visible, minor contrasts only.
- 7—Drawing of direct light effect method — B-banknote. S-black paper. G-1 glass plate on which note rests. G-2 glass plate to press note down. L-lamps.
- 8—Drawing of reflected light method which gives the "Callier effect". Same explanation as above for symbols.
- 9—Austria-Hungary Zehn Gulden banknote, issued 1863. Photographed with regular light from above; strong shades.
- 10—Same note, counterfeit. Photographed the same way as on No. 9, gray shades.
- 11—The genuine note (as on No. 9), with light as on figure 7. Watermarks clearly visible.
- 12—The counterfeit note, photographed the same as No. 11. No watermarks visible.
- 13—Swedish bank note (as No. 3 and No. 4). Photographed with light as on figure 7, watermarks and embossed "dry stamp" visible.

Editor's Note—

Early in November I received a notice from Mrs. Anna Gyulai advising me of the death of her husband, Dr. Ferenc Gyulai, on Aug. 31. A letter of sympathy was immediately mailed to Mrs. Gyulai.

We are indeed fortunate in having received from Dr. Gyulai the two excellent articles on photography of coins which appeared in previous issues of *Calcoin News*, and the one on photography of paper money which is printed above.



The B-Yen, Ryukyu Islands, 1945-1958

By BELMONT FARIES, Stamp Editor, Washington Star

Military currency seldom survives the war for which it is issued. The B-Yen notes prepared for the American invasion of Okinawa in 1945 are an exception. They remained legal tender in the Ryukyu Islands until 1958. During the 13 years they were in circulation a new high value was added to the series and two of the original denominations were reprinted in Japan. These changes passed unnoticed by military currency collectors and even by the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, which had supervised production of the original notes. When notes reprinted in Tokyo were submitted to Bureau Director H. J. Holtzclaw early in 1962 he wrote: "Our examination . . . indicated they are counterfeit. Since the notes are counterfeit, we are transmitting them to the Chief of the United States Secret Service for his information." (1)

To clear up the confusion created by the publication in *Coin World* (2) of Mr. Holtzclaw's statement, the following history of the military B-Yen from the invasion of 1945 to the conversion of 1958 has been compiled from official sources.

Late in 1944, the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, which had earlier prepared invasion currency in lire, francs, marks and schillings for use in Europe, was asked to produce notes in yen denominations for the invasion of Japan. These notes, designed at the Bureau, bear on their face the words

"Military Currency" in English and Japanese and on the reverse side the legend "Issued Pursuant to Military Proclamation" in both languages. There are two types, identical except for a large outline letter "A" or "B" behind the serial number. Denominations are 10 and 50 sen, 1, 5, 10, 20 and 100 yen. The 20 and 100 yen notes are the size of a dollar bill, the 5 and 10 yen notes about three-fourths as wide, and the 10 and 50 sen and 1 yen notes half as wide. All seven denominations have eight-digit serial numbers with an "A" prefix and an "A" suffix. Replacement notes—those substituted for consecutive serial-numbered notes destroyed by inspectors—have an "H" prefix and an "A" suffix.

The Bureau of Engraving and Printing, with more high priority war-time orders than it could handle, made glass positives for plates and turned over the plate making and printing to the Stecher-Traung Lithograph Corp. of San Francisco. There the notes were printed by offset lithography in four colors for the face and two for the reverse. These notes were cut apart, numbered and packaged at the California State Printing Office in Sacramento. (3) Both type "A" and type "B" notes were produced for the Navy Department. The War Department also ordered quantities of the type "B" notes. (4) Totals delivered to the military were 331,690,000 A-yen and 311,374,000 B-yen.

The invasion of Okinawa, largest island of the Ryukyu chain which stretches southwest from Japan towards Taiwan, was planned to provide a base for the final assault on the Japanese home islands. One minor detail in the complex plans for Operation Iceberg concerned money. The type "B" military yen was to be the only legal tender for use by the American armed forces in the Ryukyu area. No general rate of exchange with the dollar was established, but for military purposes a provisional basis of 10 yen per \$1 was set. Military and naval personnel were to be permitted to exchange their B-yen at this rate when leaving the area or sending money home. (5) The Japanese yen had been worth 28.5 cents (3.51 to the dollar) in 1938 (6), but wartime inflation had taken its toll, and the 10 yen to \$1 rate was set in light of prevailing conditions in the Ryukyu Islands. Troops on the invasion ships were permitted to draw \$10 to \$15 worth of B-yen before they went ashore. (7) This was the only money they carried when they landed in the Keramas, 15 miles west of Okinawa, on 26 March, and on the Hagushi beaches of central Okinawa on Easter Sunday, 1 April 1945. The battle which followed was the hardest fought in the Pacific War, with 12,520 Americans and 110,000 Japanese killed in action in the three-month campaign. (8) Okinawa was the last battle of World War II. Japan accepted the Allied terms of surrender on 14 August, and American naval and military units moved into Tokyo Bay for the formal surrender on the battleship Missouri on 2 September 1945.

Two days later, the first change was made in the military conversion rate. All B-yen notes in the hands of American troops were called in. They were reissued at the rate of 15 yen to \$1, effective 5 September 1945. (6) In the beginning there was no plan for the B-yen to replace local currency, as it eventually did in Okinawa. The notes were intended as a supplementary currency for making military payments which would circulate on a one-for-one basis with money already in use. Even this was soon ended in Japan and Korea, however. General Douglas MacArthur, the Supreme Allied Commander, issued instructions early in 1946 for use by

the military of yen notes to be supplied by the Bank of Japan and the Bank of Chosen. (9)

As continuing inflation reduced the purchasing power of the yen there were increasing demands for a revision of the military conversion rates. By June, 1946, a soldier who took \$50 of his money in yen received 750 yen which would buy about what \$5.70 would have bought before the war. (10) Finance officers piled up huge surpluses in their pay accounts. Nevertheless, a survey showed that American troops were sending home considerable more than they were being paid. This was possible because Post Exchange goods were bringing fantastic prices in the Japanese black market. In an effort to curb black market activity military officials decided to create a double currency system, with one form a military scrip not usable by the Japanese. (11)

Effective 19 July 1946, the A-yen notes, which had remained in storage, were made the sole legal tender for purchases from Army Sales Stores and Post Exchanges in Japan and Korea. All military personnel were required to exchange their Japanese yen or B-yen for A-yen, turning in with the notes an affidavit that they had been obtained legally. The A-yen could not be issued to or exchanged by Japanese. (12) Use of the A-yen did little to solve the black market problem and nothing at all about the conversion rate grievance. So effective 1 October 1946, they were replaced by a dollar denomination scrip, Military Payment Certificates in values from 5 cents to \$1. (13) These were the blue and gray series 461 MPCs which were already in use in Europe. (14) The A-yen notes, which had been in limited circulation for less than two and a half months, were destroyed. This limited use explains their relative scarcity compared with B-yen. B-yen notes gradually were removed from circulation by banks in Japan and Korea and soon were in use only in the Ryukyu Islands, where MPCs also were introduced on 29 September 1946. (15)

Okinawa had presented a special case from the beginning. The main island, plus the Amami group to the north and Miyako and Yaeyama to the south, was separated completely from Japan and all Japanese troops and officials were repatriated. Amer-

ican military government teams set about building up a completely new native government, a task made difficult by the fact that the few Okinawans with any sort of administrative training had served only in the lower levels of the Japanese bureaucracy. Okinawa had been so hard hit by the preliminary bombardment and the fighting that a monetary economy had ceased to exist. Some 62,000 civilians had been killed and 90 per cent of the population was scattered and homeless. Most had neither food nor shelter beyond what the Americans could provide. Gradually, in the fall of 1945, about 450,000 civilian refugees were gathered into 15 internment camps. Those who were able to work did so without pay. Distribution of food and clothing was on a basis of need. Not until May 1946 was a decision reached that a monetary economy could be restored, under the strictest of wage and price controls. (16) Okinawa's economy was cut off not only from Japan but from the Northern and Southern Ryukyus as well. In both of these areas, less damaged by war, the effects of Japan's postwar inflation were felt more strongly than in Okinawa. In March 1946, the currency policy already in effect in Japan was extended to the Ryukyus. All old issue Bank of Japan notes of 5 yen and over were declared no longer legal tender after 28 April. Between 15 and 28 April, these notes could be exchanged for B-yen, in the absence of new issue Bank of Japan notes, at the rate of one for one.

As of 29 April 1946, legal tender in the Ryukyus included B-yen, new issue Bank of Japan notes, old issue Bank of Japan notes of 5 yen or more properly validated by an adhesive "revenue" validation stamp applied by a bank in Japan, and old issue Bank of Japan notes in denominations of less than 5 yen. (6) Because of the continued inflationary trend in Japan the military conversion rate was changed effective 12 March 1947 from 15 yen to \$1 to 50 yen to \$1. At the same time, the blue and gray MPCs (Series 461) were called in and a new blue and red (Series 471) MPC issued. (17) Unlike Japan, where the B-yen disappeared from circulation, in the Ryukyus the Japanese yen notes were gradually replaced by B-yen. The last of the Japanese notes were ordered converted between 16

and 20 July 1948. Effective 31 July 1948, the military B-yen became the sole legal tender on the islands. Possession, import or export of other currencies, including the Japanese yen and the American dollar, were prohibited with a prison term provided for violations. (18) Native Okinawans also were prohibited from having MPCs in their possession. Military personnel could change small amounts of MPCs for B-yen, but there was no way in which substantial amounts of B-yen could be reconverted into MPCs, Japanese yen or American dollars.

The Ryukyus now had a single currency whose exchange value was set by military order. It had no backing other than the implied good faith of the American military government. The United States assumed no obligation for its conversion into any other currency. Nevertheless, when the Tokara group of islands north of the 29th parallel was turned over to Japan on 10 February 1952, and when the larger Amami group reverted to Japanese control on 25 December 1953, all B-yen notes in the hands of the inhabitants were converted into Japanese yen at three to one B-yen. This rate had been set on 12 April 1950 when the military conversion rate was changed in the Ryukyus for the third and last time, going from 50 yen to \$1 to 120 yen per \$1. (6)

In the years immediately after World War II, Okinawa had been largely ignored, with war damage unrepaired and the economy left at a subsistence level. But the start of the Korean War in 1950 changed the picture drastically. Millions of dollars were poured into Okinawa to build up the greatest American military base in the Far East. In December 1950, the United States Military Government was replaced by the United States Civil Administration in the Ryukyu Islands (USCAR) and a start made on solving some of the more serious economic problems. When the Japanese peace treaty was drafted in 1951 the United States retained full administration over the Ryukyus while conceding "residual sovereignty" to Japan.

Military employment at a greatly accelerated pace and booming service industries near the camps and air fields soon had their effect on the native economy. A currency with a

high denomination of 100 yen (83 cents) was no longer adequate. Late in 1951, USCAR ordered a supply of 1000 yen B-yen notes from Japan. These were received on 11 December and placed in circulation on 22 December 1951. This 1000 yen B-yen note, produced by the Japanese Ministry of Finance's Printing Bureau (the Japanese equivalent of our Bureau of Engraving and Printing) was modeled on or copied from the 100 yen note. The black design on the face, however, unlike any of the other denominations, was printed from a recess engraved plate. Serial numbers of the 500,000 notes in the 1951 order were given an "A" prefix and an "A" suffix. The figures are a thin, sans serif style differing greatly from the heavy serif figures of the notes printed in the United States. Four more orders of the 1000 yen notes were printed in Japan. There were 500,000 with B—B serials received by USCAR 26 September 1952; 500,000 with C—C serials received 9 September 1953; 1,000,000 with D—D serials received 21 October 1955; and 3,000,000 with E—E serials received 12 June 1956. (19)

In 1955, when the original wartime supply of 53,984,000 one yen notes had been depleted, the Department of the Army arranged with the Bureau of Engraving and Printing to provide an additional 2,624,000 notes in this denomination. These notes, with serial letters B—B (replacement notes have a "B" prefix and no suffix letter) were the last of the B-yen notes produced by the Bureau. (1) When more one yen notes were required the following year, USCAR decided to have them printed in Japan. An order totaling 7,680,000 notes was received

in Naha 12 June 1956. These notes are good copies of the originals but come with serial letters C—C and have the same thin, sans serif serial digits as the 1000 yen notes. Another order of 7,680,000 one yen notes with serial letters D—D was received 12 July 1957, and with it came 2,000,000 5 yen notes with serials B—B. These were the last B-yen notes printed. Apparently no one in USCAR or the Department of the Army bothered to tell the Bureau of Engraving and Printing that two of its notes had been reprinted elsewhere!

It was this oversight which led Bureau officials to classify samples of the Tokyo-printed B-yen notes as counterfeit. Mr. Holtzclaw still uses the word, but concedes, on the basis of additional information, that this is largely a matter of semantics. "From the standpoint that the notes may have been legally circulated and redeemed, the notes perhaps need not be considered counterfeit by the public," he writes. "However, from our standpoint, we must regard them as counterfeit, being copies made from printed specimens rather than the original design." (20) Legally, of course, there can be no question that the B-yen notes are not counterfeits, since they were authorized, issued and redeemed by an agency of the Department of Defense acting under powers delegated by the President of the United States.

In the following table, which consolidates information from the Bureau of Engraving and Printing and the United States Civil Administration in the Ryukyu Islands, all printings of the B-yen notes are listed by denomination and date:

Denomination	Year	Printer	Serial Letters	Quantity
10 sen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	51,856,000
50 sen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	43,344,000
1 yen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	53,984,000
	1955	U.S. Bureau	B—B	2,624,000
	1956	Japan	C—C	7,680,000
	1957	Japan	D—D	7,680,000
5 yen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	27,000,000
	1957	Japan	B—B	2,000,000
10 yen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	60,740,000
20 yen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	35,408,000
100 yen	1945	U.S. Bureau	A—A	39,042,000
1000 yen	1951	Japan	A—A	500,000
	1952	Japan	B—B	500,000
	1953	Japan	C—C	500,000
	1955	Japan	D—D	1,000,000
	1956	Japan	E—E	3,000,000

Use of the B-yen currency finally ended in the Ryukyus in September 1958. Regular American banknotes and coinage which (except for cents) had never been permitted in the islands, became official for the military community on 11 April 1958 when the use of military payment certificates was abandoned. On 23 August, Lt. Gen. Donald P. Booth, United States High Commissioner, announced that United States dollars would become the official currency, replacing B-yen, but gave no date, though the word soon passed around that 15 September was the target. Preparations for the conversion were speeded. Currency and coins were brought from the United States and transferred to the Bank of the Ryukyus. A typhoon threat caused a one-day delay, but on 15 September 1958,

the official announcement was made:

"From and after 0001 hours 16 September 1958, the United States dollar, consisting of all the coins and currencies of the United States, which are authorized to circulate as money in the United States, shall be legal tender in the Ryukyu Islands. From and after 2400, 20 September 1958, the United States dollar shall be the only legal tender in the Ryukyu Islands . . ." (21)

In the five-day conversion period, and a grace period of 10 more days until the end of September, 4,224,573,240 B-yen were exchanged for \$35,204,777. (15) The B-yen, after a surprising validity of more than 13 years, had become merely a collector's item.

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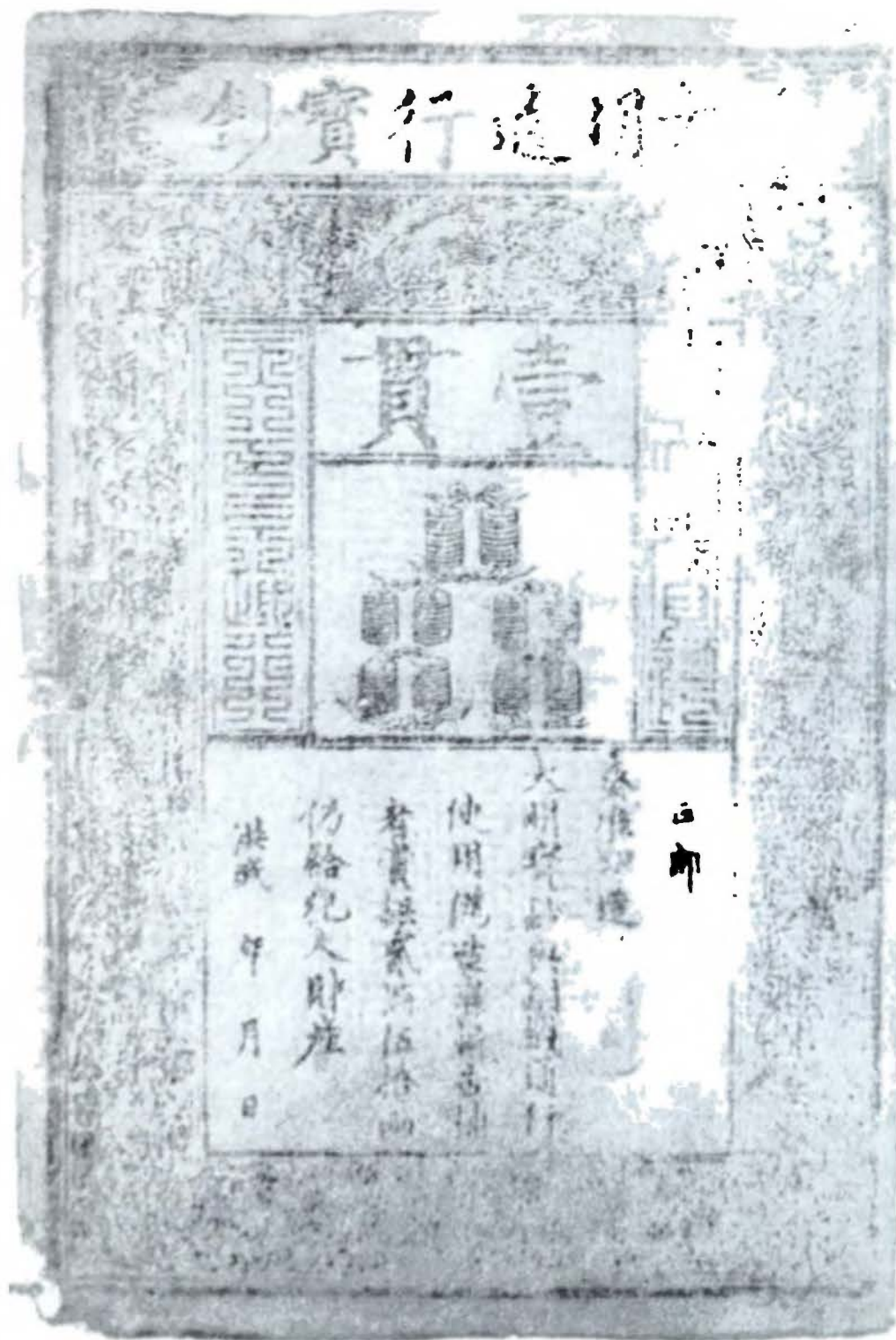
Reprint from *Japanese Philately* (publication of the International Society for Japanese Philately), volume 17, number 4, August 1962.

One Kwan Note, Ming Dynasty

EMPEROR, T'AI TSU; PERIOD, HUNG WU; A.D. 1368-1398.

China was the first country to use paper as a regular medium of exchange. It is said that in the reign of Wu-Ti, 140 B.C., notes of white deer-skin were in circulation. Each note was for 40,000 cash and was one Chinese foot square (about 13 in.).

Paper notes were first issued, and in 10 denominations, during the Tang dynasty, reign of Kao Tsung, of the Emperor Yung Hui, 650-656 A.D., accord-



ONE KWAN NOTE, MING DYNASTY
 Emperor, T'ai Tsu; Period, Hung Wu; A.D. 1368-1398.
 Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea.

ing to the Chinese book, **Ch'uan Pu Y'ung Chih**, published by Hung Tsung in 1149 A.D.

When Marco Polo returned from China in the 13th century, he described the paper pulp from which the notes were being made at the Khan's mint in the city of Kanbalu as from the "thin inner rind which lies between the coarser bark and the wood of the [mulberry] tree."

Centuries later (1900) after the Boxer Rebellion, a small bundle of kwan notes was found by some European soldiers while they were looting the Summer Palace in Peking. Thinking them to be worthless, they gave them to a bystander, Surgeon Major Louis L. Seaman, U.S.A., of New York. These notes have found their way to the Museum of St. John's College at Shanghai; The Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; The Essex Institute, Salem, Mass.; Knickerbocker Trust Co., N.Y.; The American Bank Note Co.; the British Museum (2); The Imperial Academy of Science at St. Petersburg (3); the Buffalo Museum of Science and other institutions. A like number, approximately, are said to be owned by private individuals.

Printed from wood blocks on dark gray paper made from the inner bark of the mulberry tree, the note measures approximately $8\frac{3}{4}$ by $13\frac{1}{2}$ in.; the impression, $8\frac{3}{4}$ by $12\frac{1}{2}$ in. The border, 1.4 in. wide, contains dragons surrounded by an arabesque design, and is surmounted by a panel with the inscription (right to left), "Circulating Government Note of the Ming Empire." The space within the border is divided into two panels. The upper has on the right side, in conventionalized square seal characters, "Government Note of the Ming Empire" and on the left, "Circulating Forever and Ever." Between these two inscriptions, above in large ordinary characters, "One Kwan," (one tiao, one string or 1000 cash), and below, a pictorial illustration representing ten hundreds of cash. The lower panel contains the following: "The Imperial Board of Revenue having memorialized the Throne has received the Imperial sanction for the issue of government notes of the Ming Empire, to circulate on the same footing as standard cash. Counterfeiters will be decapitated. The informant will receive 250 taels of silver and in addition the entire property of the criminal. Hung Wu.....year.....month.....day." Government seals, red in color and $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. square, are impressed in both upper and lower panels, bearing in square seal characters, "The Seal of Government Note Administrators." On the back of the note, above is impressed in vermilion a seal bearing "Seal for Circulating Government Notes," and below, "One Kwan," with a pictorial representation of 1000 cash.

The specimen illustrated is in the C. V. Kappen collection.

World War II: Military and Payment Certificates

By HAL WOOLWAY

The Society of International Numismatics endeavors to bring to the collecting fraternity special items of interest, in the hope that it will stimulate the study of numismatics from a practical, as well as a historical and economic, viewpoint. Toward this goal, an attempt has been made to assemble information pertaining to World War II military currency.

Nations of the world, during a period of "all out" war, find themselves in a complicated currency

dilemma. This exists as armies of one nation or group of nations move aggressively into new territory. Thus we find the issuing of special combat or military currency to help alleviate the hard pressed currency systems. The United States and the Allies printed this money to simplify transactions until the national stability of the individual nations was restored.

The conquering countries more or less set the rate of exchange, as they deem necessary, for the existing war

economy. This, in turn, helps regulate the amount of notes printed and the denominations to be issued. These issues are sanctioned by International Law, but one may readily see that the "good faith" of the country or "force" are the only factors which make the populace accept and use them.

The Axis countries, such as Germany and Japan, printed invasion money usually to the detriment of the nations they occupied. These occupied countries were flooded with newly issued scrip, and were compelled to use it, to bring chaos to the existing monetary system. Thus they gained financial domination of the country very rapidly. The Nazis simply moved their printing presses along with them as their armies advanced. When funds were low, the mobile printing presses replenished their supply. In France, as a result of their inflationary tactics, the Nazis forced the value of the franc down to a low of $\frac{1}{10}$ th of one cent. Japan, using similar techniques in China, floated military yen by the boat loads competing directly with the yuan. This naturally drove the regular Chinese yuan down to a low percentage of its former value and resulted in a shaky economy.

As one can see readily, military currency played a very interesting and important part during the World War II conflict and in the shaping of the world's destiny. This segment of numismatics, important as it was, has not enjoyed the popularity it surely deserves. It presents many separate fields for survey and study by the numismatist. One can select United States payment certificates, prisoner of war money, invasion notes, concentration camp scrip, propaganda notes, Philippine underground or guerrilla money, liberation notes, as well as the regular military currency of the various nations. To the collector, a challenge indeed, with the printing of approximately 325-350 different allied notes. For added interest, one may wish to start a basic collection of German and Japanese invasion notes used during the global conflict.

To help provide fundamental information for the individual collectors who may wish to start a type collection, the following information is presented.

Allied military notes consist of various types, depending upon the area for which they were intended. The Italian notes were issued in 1, 2, 5, 10, 50, 100 and 1000 lire in 1943. It might be noted here that soon after the notes appeared in the theatre of operations, counterfeits were quick to make their appearance. A later issue of Series 1943-A had Italian wording, as well as English, on the face of the note. Their value was $\frac{1}{2}$ ¢ more than the actual Italian lire on the Swiss market during the invasion operation.

Likewise, in France the Allied currency circulated at a rate of 2¢ per franc, which was quite a bit higher than the previous $\frac{1}{5}$ th of a cent under the Nazi rule. French notes of the first series had the motto of the French Republic on the tricolor flag on the reverse. The denominations consisted of 2, 5, 10, 50, 100, 500 and 1000 francs, all dated 1944. A few notes of 5000 francs are known to have been printed. General DeGaulle was dissatisfied with their design; and on a later issue of 50, 100 and 500 francs with the word France on reverse, the wording "Emiss de France" on the face was omitted to be replaced with the single word "France."

The 1944 Austrian notes were printed in terms of shillings in the following denominations: 50 groschen, 1, 2, 5, 10, 50, 100 and 1000 shillings with a British issue of 25 shillings also being printed. These notes use the heading "Alluerde Militarbehorde," the German equivalent for Allied Military Office.

The military personnel in Germany made use of currency with the same heading but a different design. Their denominations of $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 marks were used by all four powers—United States, Great Britain, France and Russia. (The latter two also issued a 1000 mark note.) Their design of each was identical, but their military currency serial numbers were different for the four countries. Their going exchange rate was 10 marks to the dollar. The addition of a zero simply converts the value of a 500 mark note to \$5. It can be mentioned here that our government officials in office at that time were very generous and let the Russians have our plates.

In the Asiatic theatre, "Yen" mili-

tary notes made their appearance. "A" notes for Okinawa and "B" notes for Japan proper were issued. Small notes of 10 sen and 50 sen were printed, as well as the 1, 5, 10, 20 and 100 yen notes. The exchange rate or value was 15 yen to one U.S. dollar. A package of U.S. cigarettes brought 25 yen or about \$1.75.

Great Britain's military currency, the pound and its divisions, was used in Greece, Burma, North Africa, Hong Kong and other areas.

At completion of hostilities, United States payment certificates came into use. There have been seven types or series of certificates issued so far by our Military Finance Division. They are for the use of military personnel and their dependents at overseas bases, government PX's, etc. They are not legal tender for civilians of that country. These notes are circulated for certain periods of times and then recalled for exchange on a new series

to be current after a set date. This is used to offset black market operations, but it was not always completely successful.

The chronological listings are as follows:

Series 461Sept. 1946
Series 471March 1947
Series 472March 1948
Series 481June 1951
Series 521May 1954
Series 5411957
Series 591Aug. 1961

The dates are not placed on the bills themselves, and all series have the following denominations: 5¢, 10¢, 25¢, 50¢, \$1, \$5 and \$10, which is the largest size note. One note of each series makes an interesting group to show friends or other collectors.

Reprint from *Compendium Of International Numismatics*, no. 3, October 1962, official publication of Society for International Numismatics, Santa Monica, Calif.



MORMON NOTES

Pictured above (reduced in size by about one-third) are two of the interesting **Tithing Store House Mormon Notes** from the collection of **Fred R. Marckhoff**, 552 Park St., Elgin, Ill.

Marckhoff is making a detailed study of these early Mormon notes, and already has record of about 200

varieties. He believes, however, that there are almost that many more.

If any of our members have any of these notes, Marckhoff would appreciate advice as to: name of issuer, exact dates, town, color of print and paper, size of note, and any other pertinent data which would assist him in identifying and classifying the note.

Postage Stamps As Currency

By DON T. THRALL, Berkeley

In order to understand better the circumstances surrounding the use of postage stamps as currency, it will be best to review briefly the establishment of the mint by the newly-formed federal government and the early coinage of the United States. The establishment of the mint by Congress was slow in coming, because some feared it would be a further invasion of states' rights and others observed there was a plentiful supply of acceptable foreign coins in circulation; hence, no real need for additional coins.

The mint was established and the standard for the new coinage was enacted into law by Congress on April 2, 1792. President Washington assigned administration of the mint to the State Department because Thomas Jefferson, then Secretary of State, was well acquainted with minting operations in Europe. In 1795, at the insistence of Hamilton, the mint was transferred to the Treasury Department.

Initially, the coins made by the government had a metallic value nearly equal to their face value. At first, coins were not made for the account of the government, but were made for those who brought the metal to the mint to be coined. This resulted in relatively few coins being made. The coins had such a high metallic value that a slight increase in value of the metal made it profitable for the holders of the coins to withdraw them from circulation and either export them or melt them down and sell them as base metal.

Hostilities between the North and the South began in 1861. By this time, the new United States coinage was becoming widely accepted. Canada had changed to a decimal system in 1858, and since the British government had shipped only small quantities of the new coins to Canada, United States fractional coins circulated widely. United States minor silver coins also circulated in the West Indies and in Latin America.

Up to this time the federal gov-

ernment had not found it necessary to issue paper money. The various states chartered banks, with few restrictions on their currency-issuing privileges. In 1861 there was about \$200 million in state bank notes and about \$30 million in United States Treasury demand notes in circulation. By the end of the year, the efforts of the Treasury to finance the war by loans had failed. This resulted in suspension of specie payments at the beginning of 1862. Gold immediately was withdrawn from circulation except on the Pacific Coast. Silver and copper coins remained in circulation for the present.

Both state and Treasury notes were quoted at a discount in terms of gold. Silver and copper had a bullion value that paper did not have. When the discount rate dropped below 97 cents gold for a paper dollar, it became profitable to export to Canada (ship silver to Canada, buy gold, ship gold to the U.S., buy paper, then start over again).

Once the drop started in January 1862, it continued to a point where it became profitable to melt coins for bullion. About this time everyone started hoarding, and minor silver really disappeared in June 1862. In July, brokers were offering a premium of 5 per cent and 6 per cent for silver coins. On July 9, 1862, a discount of 8 per cent prevailed in New York. This resulted in \$100 in silver being worth \$97 in gold and \$108 in Treasury paper. There were still millions of cents in circulation, but the next smallest denomination was a \$5 Treasury note.

This presented a strange paradox during a war boom. It became increasingly difficult to conduct business, particularly for utilities such as ferries and street cars. Things got to the point where business houses were insisting that customers buy in multiples of not less than \$5 or go without.

In July 1862 stamps began to make their appearance as currency. This was a very poor currency physically, but it did have the advantage of



stability. Some localities cut up \$1 and \$2 state bank notes and some states issued fractional bank notes. Some cities undertook to issue fractional notes, which were widely accepted. In some localities, county governments issued what appeared to be fractional bank notes but in reality were checks drawn on the banks.

Various means were used in an effort to protect these adhesives. They were pasted on small slips of paper of various weights. Some firms used small envelopes to contain the stamps. These envelopes contained advertising and the value of the stamps enclosed. Few of these envelopes exist today.

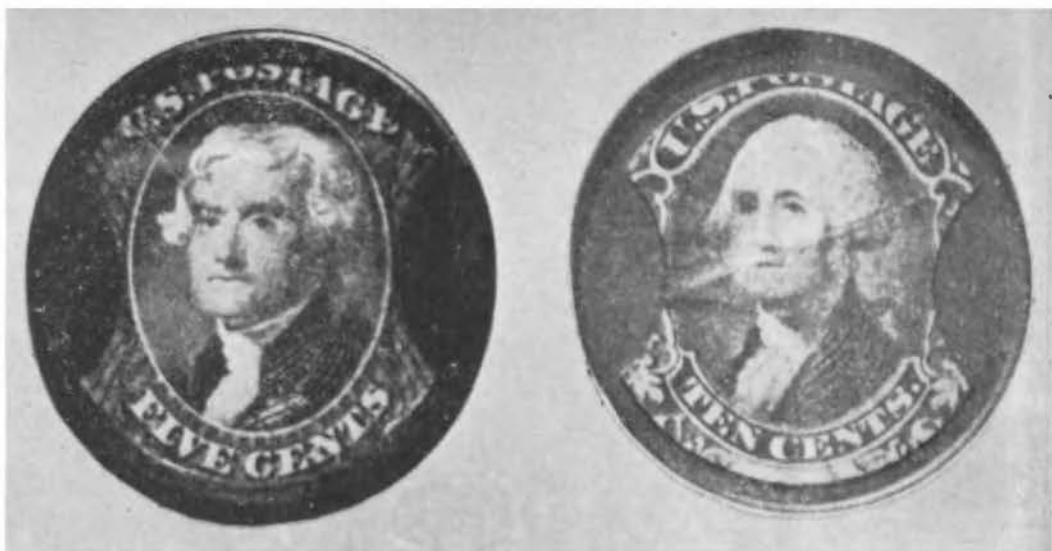
On Aug. 12, 1862, a Bostonian,

John Gault, obtained a patent for a "design for postage stamp case . . . being an invention new and original, designed for encasing government stamps for currency". He also conceived the idea of selling the space on the backs of the cases for advertising.

On July 17, 1862, the Congress passed the following bill "providing for the use of postage stamps for money":

"Be it enacted . . . That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, directed to furnish to the assistant treasurers, and such designated depositories of the United States as may be by him selected in such sums as he may deem expedient, the postage and other stamps





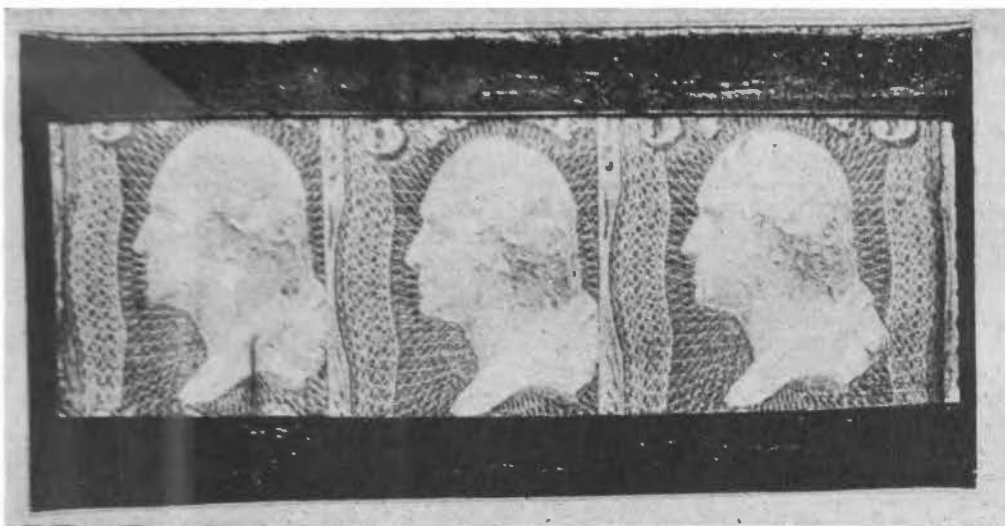
of the United States, to be exchanged by them, on application, for United States notes; and from and after the first day of August next such stamps shall be receivable for all dues to the United States less than five dollars, and shall be exchanged for United States notes when presented to any assistant treasurer or any designated depository selected as aforesaid in sums not less than five dollars.

"SECTION 2. And be it further enacted, that from and after the first day of August, Eighteen Hundred and Sixty-two, no private corporation, banking association, firm, or individual shall make, issue, circulate, or pay any note, check, memorandum, token, or other obligation, for less sum than one dollar, intended to

circulate as money or to be received or used in lieu of lawful money of the United States; and every person so offending shall, on conviction thereof in any district or circuit court of the United States, be punished by fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding six months, or by both, at the option of the court."

This really didn't help matters much, as the Treasury Department hadn't made any arrangements with the Post Office Department and the latter just wasn't equipped to handle the rush to purchase stamps. Worn stamps were supposed to be accepted for exchange of new stamps, but the Post Office at first refused to make any exchanges.





Because postage stamps proved to be very impractical as a circulating medium, the Treasury Department issued, without Congressional authorization, the first of our fractional currency, referred to as postage currency. This was issued in denominations of 5, 10, 25 and 50 cents. The first series was issued in perforated sheets similar to perforated postage stamp sheets. When the perforations proved impractical, the next series was issued without the perforations, otherwise being the same. These sheets were cut apart with scissors. The need for \$1 bills was so great that frequently the notes were cut into blocks of \$1 value.

On March 3, 1863, Congress enacted a law "providing for the issue of fractional notes, etc." as follows:

"SECTION 4. And be it further enacted, that in lieu of postage and revenue stamps for fractional currency, and of fractional notes, commonly called postage currency, issued or to be issued, the Secretary of the Treasury may issue fractional notes of like amount in such form as he may deem expedient, and may provide for the engraving, preparation, and issue thereof in the Treasury Department building. And all such notes issued shall be exchangeable by the assistant treasurer and designated depositaries for United States notes, in sums not less than three dollars, and shall be receivable for postage and revenue stamps, and also in payment of any dues to the United States less than five dollars, except duties on imports, and shall



be redeemed on presentation at the Treasury of the United States in such sums and under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe: Provided, that the whole amount of fractional currency issued, including postage and revenue stamps issued as currency, shall not exceed fifty million dollars.

"SECTION 7. And be it further enacted, all banks, associations, or corporations, and individuals issuing or reissuing notes or bills for circulation as currency after April first, Eighteen Hundred and Sixty-Three, in sums representing any fractional part of a dollar, shall be subject to and pay a duty of five per centum each half year thereafter upon the amount of such fractional notes or bills so issued."

This Act authorized the issuance of the postage currency which already had been made and circu-

lated, and authorized the issuance of the subsequent fractional notes.

Encased postage stamps proved quite satisfactory, but because of the heavy demand for stamps and the government's inability to meet it, postmasters finally refused to sell the large quantities to John Gault which were required by him to fill his orders. In a relatively short period of time he was forced out of business by a lack of raw materials, namely, postage stamps.

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Illustrations enlarged to twice actual size.
Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea.

The One Kuan Ming Note

By H. F. BOWKER, Oakland

The collecting of paper currency of the several countries of East Asia is fascinating. The designs are both interesting and artistic and differ from those appearing on the notes of occidental countries. Also, this is an interesting area which has not been explored fully in Western numismatic literature to date.

One of its lesser known aspects relates to the methods employed in China and Japan to record the issues in the official governmental archives designed to prevent the exchange of counterfeit notes when worn out in circulation for new notes. In the February 1956 issue of *The Numismatist* a study was published under the title "Japanese 'Kinsatsu' and their Counterfoils," showing how the Japanese government recorded the earlier issues of the Meiji period (1868-1875). An extensive search made at that time failed to disclose anything published in any language relating to the methods employed in earlier times in either China or Japan.

A work recently acquired entitled *Chung Kuo Huo Pi Shih*, by Peng Hsin-wel (in two volumes with 636 pages of text copiously illustrated, published in Shanghai, China, in 1954), has what is believed to be the first item of NEW information relating to the system used to record the issues of paper notes during the Ming dynasty (A.D. 1368-1644). This is not to be confused with a smaller work with the same title published by the Commercial Press in 1934.

The work is a survey of the metallic and paper currencies of China from the earliest times to the end of the Ch'ing dynasty in 1911. But nothing in the text other than the brief three-line caption under the plate which is reproduced in the accompanying illustration (numbered 57 from this work) is given in explanation of the plate. It is necessary, therefore, to endeavor to extract such information as is possible from the illustration itself.

Many articles have been published in the past on the one kuan (1000

Block for Printing the One Kuan Ming Note



Dimensions of the printing block, 27.4 x 31.4 cm.

cash) denomination **Hung Wu** note. It has been misrepresented many times as the earliest Chinese paper note by writers who did not bother to search out the records of numerous notes, dating back as far as at least 500 years prior to the **Ming** era, to be found in various collections. Actually, it is merely an example of an early Chinese note which exists in sufficient numbers so that a collector may hope to possess an example for his collection.¹ These are said to have been first issued in A.D. 1375, and there is evidence that they continued to be issued and circulated until the 12th year of **Ch'ung Cheng** (A.D. 1639), the very last emperor of the **Ming** dynasty.² The spacing of the Chinese characters in the lower left-hand column of the notes provides room for the insertion by hand of the proper numeral characters for the year, month, and day of issue. However, they are unknown, to date, with dates filled in with contemporary dates. About 50 copies have been examined by the writer and only ONE had the date characters inserted, and in this case it was all too obvious that they had been inserted not too long ago.

The plate reproduced is a regularly printed impression from an inked wooden plate, or an ink-squeeze rubbing taken on a thin white cotton paper from the wooden plate and reversed. The laid- and chain-lines of the paper can be seen clearly in the illustration. This produces an entirely different effect from a reproduction taken from the heavy felt-like dark gray paper of the original notes. That the illustration was taken from a wooden, and not a metal block, is indicated from the abrasions to the design along the left-hand margin. These probably were caused by worms or accidental splintering away of portions of the wooden block.

The most interesting feature of the plate is the portion at the right-hand margin, the counterfoils, which were used for making a record of the notes issued after being cut away before

the notes were placed in circulation.

The 11 Chinese characters in the vertical column at the right are the counterfoils of this issue, spaced into four groups of respectively two, four, two, and three ideographs: **Ch'uan Tsu, Erh Shih Chiu Hao, Ch'uan Tsu, San Shih Hao**. The two-character groups are believed to represent the equivalent of series numbers. The four- and three-character groups, respectively, represent the numerals 29 and 30. It is not clear why two consecutive serial numbers should be placed on the counterfoil strip of one printing of a note. It is believed, however, that when the strip of paper containing them was cut away from the body of the note, it also was halved so that the upper and lower sections might be deposited in two separate bureaus of issue for their records.

* * *

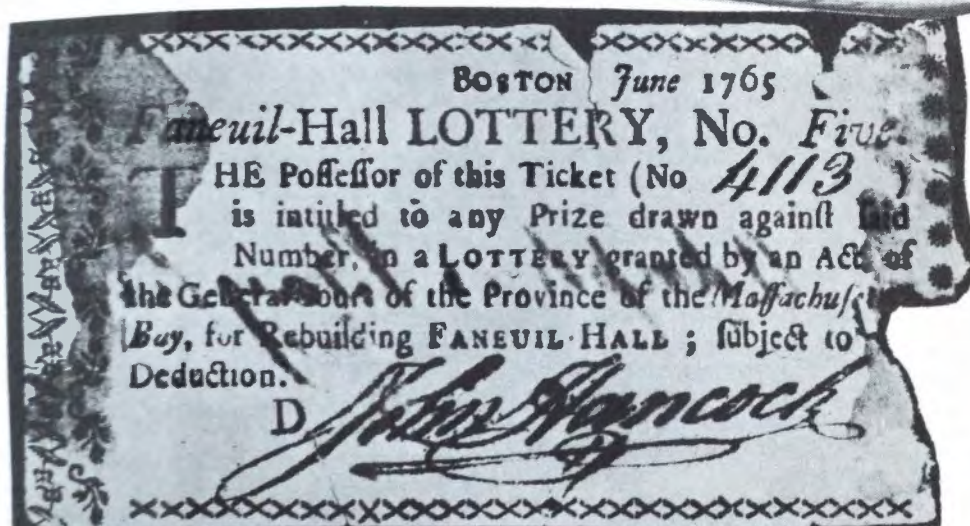
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1. The fullest information available in English on the paper currency of China prior to the Ming dynasty (A.D. 1368) is to be found in Edkins' *Banking and Prices in China*, 1905.

2. Bushell, pp. 6-9, there are typographical errors in the date given as "(A.D. 1239)." This should be A.D. 1639. The Ming dynasty did not exist prior to 1368, and the mention of the "twelfth year of the reign Ts'ung chen" in the text correctly indicates the year 1639.

EXONUMIA



EXONUMIA

An Exonumist is one who engages in collecting and studying tokens, medals, scrip and other substitutes for hard money, an area somewhat outside that followed by the majority of numismatists, but still well within the general scope of numismatics.

The word has been explained as derived from combining the Greek prefix "exo" meaning "without or outside," and the abbreviation for numismatics, "numis" to produce "exonumist."

Odd and Curious Money

- or -

Substitutes for Money

By WALTER GERTH, Vallejo

This type of collecting is one that can bring both pleasure and knowledge to anyone who wishes to follow this branch of our hobby.

A collection may be started with just a few items. While study and research on these items is being done, other interesting pieces may be located and added to the collection. One should not overlook the fact that odd and curious pieces of money are often found in odd and curious places—such as rummage sales, antique shops, second-hand stores, and even grandmother's button box. An unattributed item often may be purchased at a low cost; then after research has been done and information about it obtained its value to the owner will be greatly increased.

A card showing or telling interesting facts about each item should be kept. These facts should appear on the face, or exhibit side of the card. The value and date obtained, along with notes as to book and page references, and possibly some personal data, can be kept on the back of each card.

Because there are so many shapes and sizes of the items in this type of a collection, I have found the best container to be plastic boxes, with minimum size of three and one-half inches by four inches and about one inch deep. These boxes can be filled with white styrofoam, and cut to fit around each piece being exhibited.

Odd and curious money may be anything which is or has been passed from person to person in exchange for goods or the settlement of debts. This money may be salt, wampum, ivory or anything else on which the transacting parties may agree. Cowrie shells of the South Pacific islands are perhaps the most common pieces with which to start a collection. Other items are Indian arrow heads and wampum beads, ivory tally sticks

from China, and porcelain gambling tokens from Siam. Silver bullet coins which look like musket balls are also early Siamese coins. Siam also had many weights in the form of ducks and elephants, and which are usually found in groups or sets of five or more.

One of the most outstanding pieces of odd and curious money is the one-half daler copper plate money of Sweden; this is about five inches square and about one-quarter inch thick.

There are many countries which have used odd and curious forms of material for media of exchange. The times and peoples who used these interesting forms of exchange are a challenge to the collector who wishes to study how others in past ages obtained the things that made their life a little more interesting and pleasant.

Perhaps some day in the future our coins and paper money may appear odd and curious to collectors.

(Editor's note —

This article was one of the prize winners of the 1965 papers contest conducted by the Pacific Coast Numismatic Society. Walter read this paper at a recent PCNS meeting, and commented on the fact that it was merely an introduction to the collecting of odd and curious monies, not an attempt to describe in detail the many items which are known.

He had on display about twenty pieces from his collection, housed in boxes such as he describes in this article. Upon completion of reading the paper, he then described in a most interesting and educational manner some of the pieces he had on display.

This is a field wide open for collectors of the unusual; and one about which many interesting articles may be written. How about some of our members submitting articles on this subject for printing in future issues of *Calcoin News*.)

MATCH-MAKING IN PRIMITIVE SOCIETIES

NEW EXHIBIT AT THE CHASE MANHATTAN BANK MONEY MUSEUM

To the relief of many prospective brides and grooms, the practice of matching marriage with money is disappearing in most western societies. With few exceptions, a bride is evaluated in terms of her personal rather than material assets.

But in many primitive societies the old custom persists. As proof, the Chase Manhattan Bank Money Museum at 1254 Avenue of the Americas opened an exhibit on "The Price of a Bride." It features the many kinds of odd and curious monies used to consummate a marriage in subsistence economies.

For example, a young swain on the Island of Yap who has a Fei burning a hole in his pocket can buy himself 10,000 coconuts, an 18 foot canoe or a wife. He'd better have big pockets, though, since a Fei is a stone disk about 30 inches in diameter and weighs over 100 pounds.

"We were curious to know," says Caroline Harris, director of the Money Museum, "the amount the young 20th Century tribesman must pay to secure a dutiful, hard-working wife. We found that practices are not strikingly different from what they have been in more civilized parts of the world.

"The price of a bride depends on the wealth of the suitor. Naturally, the more he has, the more he pays."

A rich man in northeastern Uganda may give as many as 200 head of cattle to the family of his desired mate.

However, in the Santa Cruz Islands

(British Solomons), the price is more specific. There a wife may be bought for no less than ten 30 foot long coils, each made from the feathers of at least 300 birds. A long string of diwarra coral shell money can buy a wife in the Santo Islands.

The coil money and the diwarra shells are among the selections of odd and curious currency that the museum features in its exhibit.

On the Gilbert Islands, New Britain and the Southern Solomons, porpoise teeth are used as currency. In much the same way as a modern housewife prizes matched pearls, the people on these islands admire a set of porpoise teeth. The playful fish has a large number of evenly matched incisors. 500 teeth buys one wife.

In primitive societies the system of wife-buying can be understood best if the communities are observed as agricultural societies where each member is expected to carry his, or her, share of the work. It is a loss to a family or village if an able-bodied woman leaves the group to join another community.

"From this point of view," says Mrs. Harris, "the family of the bride is not selling a child, but rather losing a competent contributor to the community's economy. In fact, where a bride price is paid, the term 'price' is rarely used and at no time is the concept of selling introduced. It's simply a trade, an exchange."

And, of course, there are some compensations.

LOTTERY TICKETS - TRUE AMERICANA

By MAURICE M. GOULD, Sepulveda

Over the years, in checking collections and museum archives, I have found a number of unusual and historical lottery tickets interspersed with other paper money.

Few realize that the lotteries were

a frequently used method of raising money for churches, roads, canals, universities, etc. Discussions of this fund raising method were revived when the State of New Hampshire was the first state in recent times to again have a state lottery, a first for New Hampshire. Massachusetts,

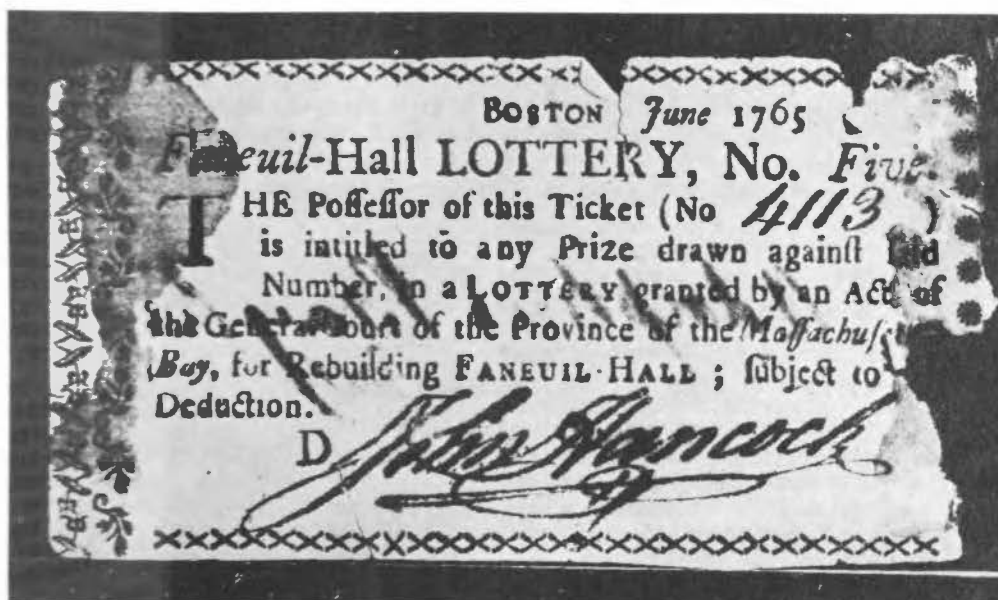
New York, and now many other states are discussing state lotteries to augment funds so badly needed for tax purpose.

I would like to discuss a very unusual lottery ticket which was in my collection for many years. I first thought about this ticket when there was a great deal of discussion about the rebuilding of the famous Faneuil Hall in Boston, and noticed that my ticket, dated June of 1765, was issued for exactly the same purpose. This ticket was granted by an Act of the General Court of the Province of Massachusetts Bay for the rebuilding of Faneuil Hall and is signed by John

dealer saying that he had purchased the ticket and that he could not be mistaken because of the photo. Postal inspectors were called in, but I have never heard whether the thief was apprehended. As the government had paid me for the insurance on this ticket, it was not returned to me, but was probably seized from the southern dealer as evidence.

Possibly one of the readers has seen this very interesting item in some collection or display.

Many of these early lottery tickets were signed by the famous of the Revolutionary and Colonial period, with George Washington's signature known on some of them.



Hancock, famous as the first governor of Massachusetts and the man who boldly signed his name in large letters on the Declaration of Independence.

Eventually I sent this ticket, which is pictured above, to a Georgia collector. After a few weeks elapsed, I had a telephone call from this party asking me what had happened to the ticket and I told him it had been mailed by insured mail. The party never received it and I then reported it to the postal authorities and sent pictures of it to Coin World and other publications.

The same day that I received Coin World I received a call from a Georgia

Harvard University, as well as many other leading educational institutions, raised funds regularly through the lottery system. Churches often issued tickets and they must have been popular in their day as there are quite a number of them known.

The tickets are now becoming quite rare and are highly desired by collectors and I know of several who are doing research in this field and it is hoped that a good publication will eventually be forthcoming.

For exonomist or numismatic pleasure, try owning a few fascinating Colonial lottery tickets.



COWRIES AND THEIR SUBSTITUTES — Chinese cowry shells were used from early neolithic times until as late as the fourteenth century A.D. Shown, left to right, from the H. F. Bowker collection, Oakland, are, top row: oceanic cowry from archeologic deposit, shell, mother of pearl, baked gray clay, stone and animal bone. Bottom row: baked red clay, lead, kuei t'ou ch'ien or "ghost's head money," i pi ch'ien or "ant's nose money," a third metallic cowry, gold-plated copper and jade. Some writers say the metallic cowries were 'borrowed' from bean-shaped coins of Aegina and Lydia, while others believe they represent a step in the evolutionary sequence from shells to metal coins. Photograph courtesy Alan D. Craig, Berkeley.

The Story Behind Money

By LEO A. YOUNG, Oakland

The story behind money is the story of how man has progressed to our present-day civilization. This story had its beginning in the very earliest stages of civilization. Although quite hard for us to conceive, there was a time when there was no money of any kind in the world.

Most students of primitive man are agreed that the first actual use and need of a barter medium (money) probably was to assist man in acquiring and fulfilling his desire for a wife. He had a choice, therefore, with the advent of money, to buy her from her family instead of raiding her home and village to steal her. (It generally is considered today that our dowries and wedding gifts are a direct continuation of the age-old practice of buying a mate.)

Man's second basic need of money probably was to pay for the "letting of blood." Injuring, maiming or killing another man called for the practice of "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." Money enabled man to

buy his freedom. Earliest writing as stated by the Bible, by Homer, by Kublai Khan, and others, refers to man's use of money to obtain his freedom as well as a mate.

Barter is, of course, the simplest and most direct of the ways in which man can dispose of his surplus goods in exchange for other things he wants. When a barter unit becomes well enough established to have a definite accepted value, it then is a short step to the multiplying or dividing of this unit and money has developed.

The beaver skin of Hudson Bay fame is an excellent example. Beaver skins were bartered by trappers and Indians for their needs. Soon, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{8}$ beaver skin values were established. The next step was to make metal disks with these values stamped on them. The disks found ready acceptance because they were easy to handle and store.

One of the Latin words for money is *pecunia*, which originates from

pecus, meaning cattle or sheep. From the word **capita**, meaning heads of beasts, we get our word capital. In a passage of the Iliad by Homer (VI, 235-236), the value of two different sets of armor is stated in terms of oxen.

In our Bible, Job 42: 11-12, "The Lord blessed Job, for he had 14,000 sheep, 6000 camels and 1000 yoke of oxen . . ." In Genesis 13:2, it is stated, "And Abram was very rich in cattle, in silver, and in gold."

Homer mentions no use of money but speaks of a bar of brass as being equal in value to one ox and of a woman or slave as being worth four oxen.

Where transactions are mentioned involving the use of "money" in all of our early writings, the reference is to crude lumps and cast ingots of metal, usually gold or silver. In Genesis 23: 2-20 we read of the aged Abraham buying a cave as a burial place for his wife and weighing out to

Ephron "four hundred shekels of silver" for its purchase.

Earliest recorded history, such as drawings found in pre-historic caves, on the walls of tombs, and on Babylonian clay tablets, shows that man already had developed such metals as iron, copper, lead and gold. More than 7000 years ago the ancient Chaldeans were using clay tablets to keep track of their business transactions in cuneiform writing. Usually these tablets covered the sale of sheep and transferred the ownership of them.

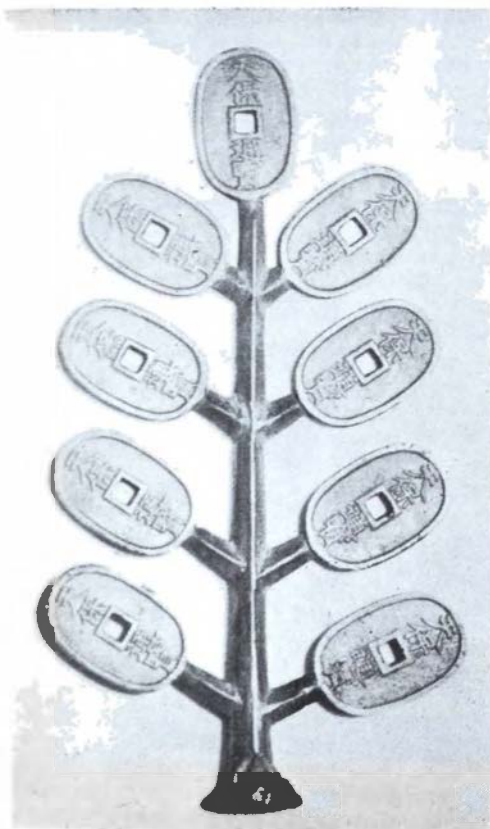
Among the most ancient of metals designed to be used as money are some of the bronze spades, fish and bridge shapes, and other weird and unusual shapes from ancient China.

We do not find a definite reference to coins in the Old Testament until we read in Ezra 2:69, "They gave after their ability unto the treasure of the work three score and one thousand drams of gold and five thousand pounds of silver . . ." The American revised version uses the phrase "darics of gold," instead of the word **dram**. The word **daric** is considered by students of numismatics to be a more accurate translation and refers to small gold coins issued by the Persians. (A coin is a piece of metal of fixed weight, alloy, design and value, bearing an identifying mark of the recognized and accepted authorities issuing it.) We believe King Croesus of Lydia (560-546 B.C.) was the first to so issue coins now known as **darics**.

Money in any of its many forms once used by man soon became and remained one of his greatest obsessions.

Coins, since their invention some 650 years B.C., quite accurately can be looked upon as miniature monuments of history. They tell a vivid story of man, his culture and of many world events.

A wonderful example of the story money can tell is that given us in the birth, rise, and fall of the Roman Empire. The birth of this great Empire started with the crude cast coinage of the Aes. As culture and refinement grew in the Empire, beauty of the design, clarity of feature and purity of metal were very pronounced in the coinage. But just as soon as debasement, thievery, and falseness became the accepted rule of the day, so did this same debasement and falseness appear in the coins. Of



'TREE' MONEY, JAPAN, 1835-1870. Nine oval copper coins, cast in tree shape and broken off as needed. This one is a forgery, as most are. Kappen collection specimen.

course, when the Roman Empire passed in history, so too did its coinage.

In many other parts of the world, however, civilization progressed at a much slower pace. Many parts of Africa, Tibet, Mongolia, Borneo, Australia and South America even today are relatively uncivilized, and people live almost as their forefathers did many, many hundreds of years ago.

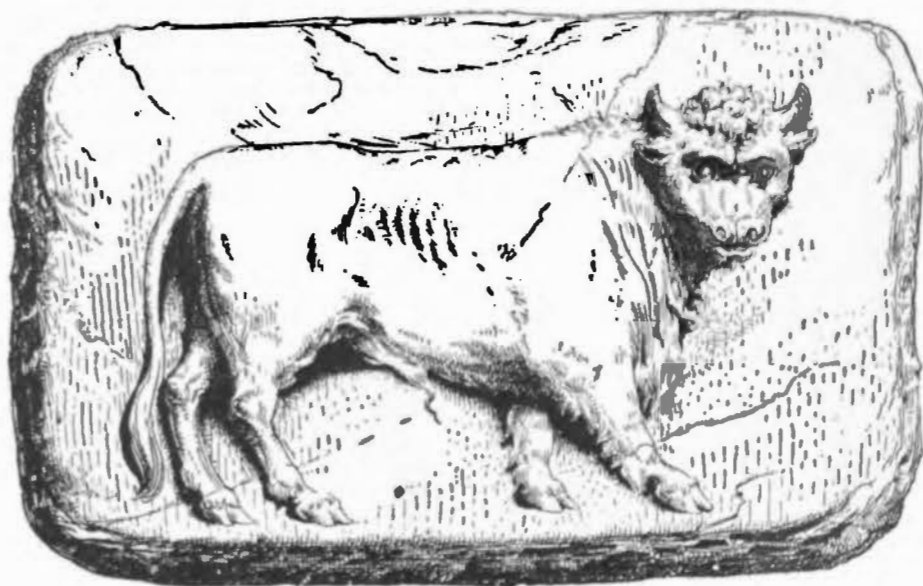
Cowrie shells generally are conceded to be the earliest form of money. Records show that the cowrie shell has been used in practically every corner of the earth as money and, indeed, is still being used in many places.

Suleiman, the Arab merchant, in his writings from the ninth century A.D., describes the riches of the Maldiv Islands, riches which consisted almost entirely of cowrie shells. Cowrie shells and simbos, a very similar shell being more circular and fragile, in 1905 had a scale value with the Bohuana tribe of Central Africa as follows: 10 cowries equal 1 mitako (brass rod 6 inches long); 20 mitako equal 1 fowl; 100 mitako equal 1 salt (2 to 3 pounds); 2 salts equal a he-goat; 4 salts equal a big she-goat; 20 salts equal a male slave.



BOAR'S TUSK MONEY, New Hebrides, New Guinea and Torres Islands, Pacific Ocean. More valuable when it makes a complete circle, as this one does. Kappen collection.

value of a woman. Cameron, the famous British explorer in Africa, relates in his travels from East to West that he started off with the usual assortment of trade beads and trade goods but found on crossing Lake Tanganyika that beads no longer were currency and he had to lay in a large supply of copper



AES SIGNATUM, ANCIENT ROME

When cowries first were brought into the Uganda, in Africa, two would purchase a woman. A generation later, it took 2000-3000 of them to purchase a male slave, one-half the

crosses. When he reached Nyangwe on the Lualaba River, an important market town where he expected to buy a canoe to continue his journey, nothing was accepted as money ex-



KEDAH, MALACCA, 'ROOSTER' MONEY, two rings or 200 doits. Made of lead about 1850. Extremely rare. This was the coin used by Dr. Al M. Rackus, Chicago numismatist, to adorn the cover of his catalogs of odd and curious moneys. Kappen collection.

cept slaves, goats and cowrie shells. He was delayed there for weeks, buying cowrie shells at the exorbitant rate of three or four pennies each until he had acquired enough of them to buy a canoe from the village chief.

Oriental philosophers have predicted that when all of the earth's present monetary units and systems have passed away, the cowrie shell still will be sought and desired as a unit of value.

Next to cowries, salt probably is the next most universal substance used as money. Literally scores of African tribes have used and are still using salt. Primarily, however, it is the basic currency of Abyssinia and neighboring tribes. It is mined as a mineral in large slabs, then is cut into pieces. Salt is current as money from the Red Sea across the entire African continent. As it is dug out of the pits, it is cut into slabs a hand and one-half long, four fingers broad and three fingers thick. When first dug, 100 of these blocks may be worth less than a ducat. Two days' journey away from the salt mines, however, six to ten blocks are worth a ducat. And as it travels further, one block eventually will purchase a slave and finally—and there are several records of this—blocks of salt have been traded for equal weight in gold.

Major Powell Cotton, traveling in 1899, found that Menelik's silver and

copper coins of Ethiopia were accepted only by the natives close to the capital. Beyond that, salt bars of varying sizes were the medium of exchange. In commerce it was customary that pieces of salt bars would be broken off, and very accurately, in exchange for goods and services. In our country it is customary to offer our friends refreshments in the form of drink, fruit, or smoke. In many African tribes that policy also is followed except that their friends often are offered a lick of salt. Usually this is done by the visitor wetting his fingers on his tongue, then passing his fingers over the salt bar, then back to the tongue. In other parts of Africa where the salt is not readily mined in bricks or tablets, it is put up in hand woven wicker baskets called *kassankara*.

It's of interest to note that history records salt being used as currency in, among other places, Sumatra, Mexico, China, Italy, Tibet, India, and Africa. Romans paid part of their legionaries wages in salt. The Latin word for salt was *solarium* from which our word "salary" is derived, a direct derivation from the practice of paying wages in salt. I am sure you are familiar also with the say-



YAP ISLAND STONE MONEY, value one pig. Dr. William Vatcher, political science professor at San Jose State College, used this small one (4 1/2-in. diameter) as a paper-weight in his office on Yap immediately following surrender of Japanese there. Kappen collection.

ing of a person not being "worth his salt." This again refers to wages paid in salt. One of our basic superstitions, that of throwing salt over our left shoulder when it is spilled, goes back to the high regard and value placed on salt and the severe consequences that followed if it were needlessly wasted.

For many years, the power of a nation has been measured more in the quality of its money than in the might of its armies. Debasement of money, which is the reducing of the metal worth in the coin by adding more and more alloy and less and less of gold and silver, first was begun by the Greeks and Romans.

That we have followed in their

footsteps, to a degree at least, our present day inflation will testify. So the story behind money tells not only of the birth of a convenience—our coinage—but also includes the story of the birth and death of great empires, dictators, and kingdoms. It truly is a most wonderful story.

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EMERGENCY MONIES--PAST, PRESENT, FUTURE

By VIRGINIA CULVER, Arcadia

The collection of emergency monies of our country has a rightful and extremely interesting place in our numismatics of today. Any money or medium of exchange which was not authorized by the United States government fits into this classification. Some of the monies were authorized by state governments before our national government functioned. Some arose through the ingenuity of our American people, but all of it carries history and intrigue which is not found in our regular United States coinage of today.

The early colonists had a very hard time carrying on their business pursuits without any official coinage. Thus, we find a tremendous variety of monies in use. The native Indians already present in this country used wampum and so the colonists carried on their fur trade with them using this media. It was accepted by grocers and used to buy commodities for the early settlers. The valuation of a wampum bead varied with the color of the bead and also with the locality in which it was used. As time went on and more trade was carried on with foreign merchants, the valuation declined. It is interesting to note that a wampum factory existed in Park Ridge, N. J., operated by the Camp-

bell Brothers until the middle of the nineteenth century. Beaver skins, deer skins, bear skins and even tobacco were used.

Mexican money was naturally plentiful and circulated with sanction until 1857. The romance of the Spanish milled dollar, known as the pillar dollar or piece of eight, along with its fractional parts is known to all of you. Money from the mother country, England, was found in use and many of the early tokens and state cent coinage were patterned after hers.

Continental currency is a part of our hobby which should attract the collector interested in the early history of our colonies eventually evolving themselves into our United States. These paper monies paved the way for the financing of our first war, and were the forerunners of many other issues of emergency monies of our country during times of need and stress to come. They were issued in what may seem strange denominations to us—1/6 of a dollar, 1/3 of a dollar, 1/2 of a dollar, 2/3 of a dollar, \$1, \$2, \$3, \$4, \$5, \$6, \$7, \$8, \$20, \$30, \$35, etc.—but because of their emergency nature, they had to cover the basic needs of the colonists without the use of change and because most

of the people were accustomed to the British money system.

The 19th century far surpasses any yet in terms of the issuance of emergency monies. There is enough variety and intrigue to satisfy all numismatists. There are all kinds and all types and the times of stress of our country were periodic: the War of 1812, the Hard Times period of 1837, the Civil War, the Panic of 1873, and the silver fight of 1896, are just a few.

Hard Times tokens made their appearance in 1837 when President Jackson was having his differences with the United States bank. This discrepancy makes interesting reading and the tokens of this period are an insight into politics and living in that day. They are the size of our large cent, as was current then, and are grouped as advertising cards and politicals.

The most climactic culmination of emergency monies lies in the time of the Civil War, the war between our own States. At no time in our country's history has the ingenuity and emotion of our people been so taxed. The advent of this internal strife dashed the nation's economy into abyss. Our government specie was more valuable for its metallic content than for its intrinsic value. Small change was hoarded and used melted for the war effort. The perplexing problem of carrying on business was met in many ways by our adroit and shrewd ancestors. The postage stamp became a medium of exchange. Because of its sticky tendencies in one's pocket, John Gault of Boston met the situation by devising a round metal frame or case for holding postage stamps with a thin mica covering. This device was short-lived and perfect specimens today command a high price.

A more practical answer to the proprietor's change problem was the issuance of small tokens, the size of our then current cent known simply as Civil War Tokens or "Copper-heads." These fascinating metallic discs satisfy the most avaricious collector, because of the infinite variety. They are generally classified into two groups — the politicals and the store cards. It is believed that those merchants who could not afford to carry their own advertising, on the reverse,

bought the political type for their use. These tokens may be found in copper, brass, white metal, nickel, German silver, zinc, copper-nickel, silver plated copper, gold plated copper, lead, hard rubber and silver. There are tokens from 8252 merchants in 393 towns in 23 different states and approximately 1,500 varieties of political tokens.

Sutler's, men who were commissioned by the government to travel with and sell to the soldiers of the Civil War his needs, were forced to issue their own tokens and paper scrip for making change in his mobile store. However, one might construe his motives for using his own token coinage as a shrewd business move also. When the Yankee soldier bought his shaving needs, stationery or candy from the sutler and presented his army pay check to him for payment, by giving the soldier change in his own private tokens, the poor soldier was unable to redeem them elsewhere!

The Civil War token readily gained acceptance, because most were the size of the Indian cent and were deceptively similar in design. And so we benefit at times from emergencies, as these tokens proved to the United States mint director that the thin bronze planchets were acceptable to the general public, and because of them the 1863 regular issue Indian Head cent was made with this type planchet rather than the heavier, more expensive copper-nickel metal used previously.

We could not complete the emergency monies of the Civil War period without alluding to Confederate currency. This is also a field by itself, and one in which variety is paramount.

In 1874 Dana Bickford suggested to the mint director an answer to the money barriers in foreign countries. His suggestion is known as the Bickford dollar, about the size of our half-dollar, made in aluminum with a small copper plug inserted. This one coin carried the equivalents of six different countries, allowing its use freely in all six countries. It can only be theorized what might have happened had this plan been accepted.

Game counters became prominent in usage in our country in the 19th century having been used centuries

before for reckoning and counting. Some of these counters carry advertising and California is the only state to have her own counters. One can envision the '49 gold miner coming to the big metropolis of San Francisco to stake his claim of a rich mine in the Mother Lode on the outcome of a poker hand.

The 20th century to date appears to be one of extremes. We have enjoyed the greatest prosperity and suffered the worst depression. We have engaged in two world wars and yet have the best facilities by which we can be friendly and helpful toward other nations. In 1933 our nation suffered its worst depression. Emergency monies were issued by state governments to combat the complete stop of business. Men were paid in state scrip to be honored by all businesses. Clearing house scrip again made its appearance after the panic of 1907. Even wooden tokens were is-

sued by states such as Washington.

OPA tokens can be classified as emergency monies, for without them one could not purchase his everyday needs which were being hoarded in the all out war effort. Military posts issued chits and scrip for money, both in this country and at our outposts.

The idea of states having their own taxes to increase their revenue evolved in the 20th century and tokens and paper stamps met this emergency of paying the tax by the consumer.

Who can tell what the emergency money of the future may be? When it will appear? And whether its use will be in our country, our world, our planet or interplanetary? Will it be based on something precious known today, or will it be something unknown that numismatists of the future will collect with pride because it is part of our American heritage?

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FACT OR FICTION? . . .

COIN GLASS

By SYLVIA NOVACK, San Bernardino, CSNA 11-3

and

NONA G. MOORE, Fontana, CSNA 1573

Most collectors and/or dealers of American glassware are not sufficiently experienced in identifying our Coin Pattern Glass of 1892. The amusing incident of one dealer who had

some pieces for sale inspired me to do extensive research on this material . . . research which proved nearly fruitless, for there is little or nothing to be found in local libraries on the subject.



Large covered compote. Nine medallions each around bowl and cover represent Seated Liberty half dollars, clear, five obverse and four reverse. Six medallions around the standard represent Seated Liberty quarter dollars, clear, three obverse and three reverse. Finial on cover represented by a Morgan dollar, clear, obverse.

The aforementioned incident involved two items which the dealer knew to be authentic until an antique dealer approached the display and rather bluntly informed this other person that the two pieces of Coin Pattern Glass were reproductions and should not be offered as genuine at an Antique Show.

Actually there is no such thing as a reproduction of Coin Pattern Glass with the date of 1892. U.S. Coin Pattern Glass forms show both the obverse and reverse of the coins; however, half dimes were produced with only the reverse showing and, therefore, no date will be seen. It will not be surprising, also, to find a water tumbler with an American coin dated 1878 or 1879 in its base. This, however, is not considered a U.S. Coin Pattern Glass, although it does harmonize nicely with our 1892 Coin Pattern Glass.

Students of our American pressed glass know that the popularity of clear glass, with the design partly frosted, began during the 1870s. The founder of Gillinder & Sons of Philadelphia is said to have come here from England in 1854, and among his possessions he had a small bottle of "white acid" with which to experiment in what we know today as the frosted, or satin finish. Having been in the glass business previously he continued his endeavors here and experimented with his "white acid" giving us several of the best frosted and clear glass patterns. However, it is unlikely that Gillinders ever produced any of our U.S. Coin Pattern Glass, for to my knowledge it was all made by the Central Glass Co. of Wheeling, West Virginia.

Coin glass was made showing both American and foreign money in all clear, clear and frosted, clear and red, clear and amber, clear with medallions decorated with gold or gilded, and even in milk-white glass. Dollars, half dollars, quarter dollars, twenty cent pieces, dimes and half dimes were used. Motifs of American coins were not identical with the respective coins, as most people believe, for the date "1892" was always used even though the coin itself had never been produced during that year. For example: a Seated Liberty quarter on a piece of Coin Pattern Glass would

be dated "1892", even though that type of quarter dollar was not minted after the year 1891. In 1892 the Barber type of quarter dollar was issued. Also, if the coin motifs are compared at length with genuine coins it will be found that they are far from identical. In spite of this difference a Federal law was violated and production of our Coin Pattern Glass at that time was stopped immediately. Much of this glass was destroyed and perhaps because it was inexpensive glassware, having been sold in dime stores, little thought was given to its preservation. Consequently today it is very rare and seldom available except from collectors.

There are two schools of thought as to why our U.S. Coin Pattern Glass was ever produced. One story is that the pattern was made in 1892 to commemorate the one hundredth year of the United States mint. This does seem to be the most logical theory, as 1892 was the centennial year and the six coin motifs used did represent all the silver coinage authorized and produced in our mints up to that time, with exception of the tiny silver three-cent piece. However, there are others who feel that the Coin Pattern Glass was produced in anticipation of the 1892-3 Columbian Exposition to be held in Chicago. The story behind this perhaps can be traced to the coin pattern pieces showing portraits of Christopher Columbus and Americus Vesputius. It is my personal opinion that these two foreign portraits were made as a result of the U.S. Coin Pattern Glass and were for the Columbian Exposition entirely.

There are fifty-five varieties of United States Coin Pattern Glass pieces known. The rarities include the flared goblet, scalloped bowls, red toothpick holder, and any piece with clear and amber patterns, as well as the gilded items.

* * * * *

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ENCASED POSTAGE STAMPS

By RAY BOWER, Ojai

—One of the Most Interesting Series of "Necessity Money" ever Issued—

With the hoarding of "hard money" during the early months of the War Between the States, all kinds of coins became very scarce, even to the point that in New York City the scarcity was so acute people had to walk due to the lack of small change for trolley fare. Merchants resorted to many forms of make-shift change. Among these the use of postage stamps played an important role, except that the problem of keeping the stamps from sticking, tearing or wearing so fast made them impractical. This is when J. Gault in 1862 devised and received a patent (No. 1627) for a metal case with mica face covering, in which postage stamps could be placed and protected. The back of the case, being solid, was used for advertising. This space was sold to many merchants. In fact, although the encased stamps were issued for two months only, July and August 1862, 31 merchants used this necessity money for advertising purposes, at a great profit for John Gault. The reason for such a short-lived issue is that the United States government started issuing the fractional notes about the same time.

The encased stamps were issued in denominations of 1, 3, 5, 10, 12, 24, 30 and 90 cents. The one cent stamp has a profile head of Franklin, facing left. The three cent, a profile of Washington, after Houdon, facing nearly front. The five cent, a portrait of Jefferson, by Stuart, facing front. The ten cent, a portrait of Washington, by Stuart, facing front. The 12 cent, the same as the ten cent, only different surroundings. The 24 cent, small head of Washington, by Stuart, facing left. The 30 cent, profile of Franklin, facing left. The 90 cent, a portrait of Washington in general's uniform, by Trumbull, facing front.

These stamps also could be identified by color: one cent stamps were blue; three cent, rose; five cent, brown; ten cent, green; 12 cent, black; 24 cent, lilac; 30 cent, orange; and 90 cent, light blue.

The cases that Gault designed were brass and they were sometimes silvered, or tinned, which wore off rapidly. To find any of the approximately 162 varieties in choice condition is a rare find.

Of the 31 merchants who issued the encased postage stamps, not all used all of the denominations. In fact only five—Burnett's Cocoaine Kalliston, Kirkpatrick and Gault, and Lord and Taylor Dry Goods—used all eight denominations. The 90 cent stamp is a rare possession.

The first sale of any consequence occurred in 1901 when the Wilcox collection was placed up for sale. It listed 88 different varieties. As you can see, the number of varieties has grown as interest in the series as a collector's item has grown. Of course, encased postage stamps are collected by coin collectors as well as stamp collectors. I think that as these stamps were circulated as a medium of exchange and barter, and as they are essentially government printed paper, they certainly should be classed as a coin collector's item.

At the present time there is no current numismatic book to my knowledge that catalogues the entire series of encased stamps. The Numismatist has had many fine articles; Robert Friedberg in his "Paper Money of the United States" has made great mention of these stamps; and I think a great deal of praise should be given to B. Max Mehl for his many fine catalogues that were printed during the infancy of numismatics, especially the Wm. F. Dunham sale of 1941.

(Reprint from NUMISMA, official publication of the Santa Barbara Coin Club.)

"INVITATION"

By DWIGHT A. SAFFORD, San Diego

The famous masters of the dance, Katharine and Arthur Murray, have a slogan: "Put a little fun in your life, try dancing". With apologies to them, I'd like to change that slogan to: "Put a lot of fun in your collecting life, try Exonumia". No, you probably won't find this word in your dictionary yet, since it has only been a few years since Russell Rulau "coined" this term in San Diego, to describe the many and varied objects or things which to the uninformed appear to be of numismatics. While at first appraisal, tokens, medallion art, trade items, and decorations seem to be foreign to the numismatic field, this is wrong. For indeed, they are all truly of coins and medals, and as such, become an integral part of the complete body of numismatics.

In this field of Exonumia, there are many areas open to exploration where one can discover and explore the fascinating study of Americana, by way of the many fields of tokens from the tokens of the Colonists, of politicals, the military, the religious, even of the tradesman and advertising items.

Or explore the field of transportation from the tokens of the toll pikes of the Colonies, the tokens given by early railroads in exchange for the wood used as fuel for their engines; through the tokens of the many bus, streetcar and ferry transportation systems throughout the country, and even the parking tokens of today.



The fairs and expositions held in this country since 1876 have created a tremendous field of tokens, and medallion art; from the souvenir medallion, advertising tokens, and the beautiful and often expensive commemorative medals and awards.

There is the field of the military, encompassing military scrip, sutler tokens, camp or base tokens, the prisoner of war tokens, and the awards and decorations. And there is the religious area, from the communion token, through the beautiful art that graces so many of the medallion pieces of all sects and beliefs.

San Diego has been blessed, for there are many of the avenues of exploration open right here in our own back yard as it were. The location of two international expositions makes San Diego the birthplace of many Exonumia items in the fair and exposition field. We have had a transportation system on the streets and waterways that has had considerable variation in its tokens. There have been a number of diversified trade and advertising tokens issued here by various business concerns in the past, including the world famous San Diego Zoo.

And, don't forget that San Diego is the center of a great military complex, embracing various branches of the service so the path of exploration should be well rewarded with military Exonumia.

And so, if you too would like to put a lot of fun in your collecting life, come with me and explore these fields of Exonumia, for I am sure that if you do, you will not only find that fun but will find rewards of great value in terms of knowledge, pride of ownership and be a much better numismatist.

And, don't forget — if you are mercenary, friend "Curly" Mitchell says: "Today's trash — tomorrow's treasure."

(Reprint from June 1966 issue of the San Diego Numismatic Society Bulletin)

(Editor's Note: It will be recalled by many of our members that at the April 1965 CSNA convention in San Francisco, eight previous Best-of-Show exhibits were re-exhibited in a special group. The "Best of Best of Show" award was given to Virginia Culver, for her outstanding display entitled "Discovering Exonumia".)

MINT ERRORS

By RANDOLPH ZANDER, Alexandria, Va., CSNA 1900

When you think of mint errors—and I'm speaking mainly of foreign coins—two main groups come to mind. On one hand there are the constant errors, and on the other are the malfunctions. A few errors, like rotated dies, fall into neither group.

* * * * *

It is surprising how many constant errors there are—misspelled words, transposed letters or transposed elements of the design, mistaken use of a ruler's portrait long after his death, etc. In many coinages anomalies of this sort are so common that you wonder if they should count as errors at all. For example, on many earlier coins would you say an "N" with the diagonal bar wrong way to is truly an error? Evidence suggests that mintmasters before about 1700 generally took an indifferent view of such failings and were pretty relaxed about trying to prevent or correct them.

Perhaps as a general rule constant errors should be thought of simply as interesting, sometimes amusing, die varieties. Indeed, related to constant errors are various die-breaks that have the Rorschak-test character of suggesting some meaning—Miss Liberty with a beard or a horn, or what-not.

In coinages that are popular and have been well-researched and which attract a number of specialists (and there are surprisingly few coinages that meet all these qualifications), it is possible and proper to assign a suitable degree of rarity to the principal constant errors. The more outrageous or amusing errors are more popular, of course, so they gain a little de-facto extra rarity, at least in relation to demand. But it is well to remember that the market—so long as you don't tilt the machine—usually supports only a moderately civilized premium of, say, 50% to 200% for a significant constant error.

* * * * *

Malfunctions are simply coins that got past the mint's quality-controlled checks. The planchet may be too thick or too thin, it may be of the wrong size or the wrong metal, it may be clipped or flaked. The coin may

have been struck more than once, the second strike may be after it had flipped over in the press; or it and another coin may have been struck together in such a way as to produce on each a mirror image of one side or the other.

Responsible assignment of relative scarcity to the various malfunction errors in different coinages is tough. The field is an open invitation to imaginative forgery or chicanery. Some crude coinages are so riddled with sloppy work that it's the perfectly-struck coin that is, in effect, the unconscious error. Need we really become ecstatic about a tiny planchet clip? (In a lot of coinages this detracts from the coin's desirability). And, when is an apparent error not an error, e.g. Is the striking in gold of a normally copper coin a true error or just a presentation piece?

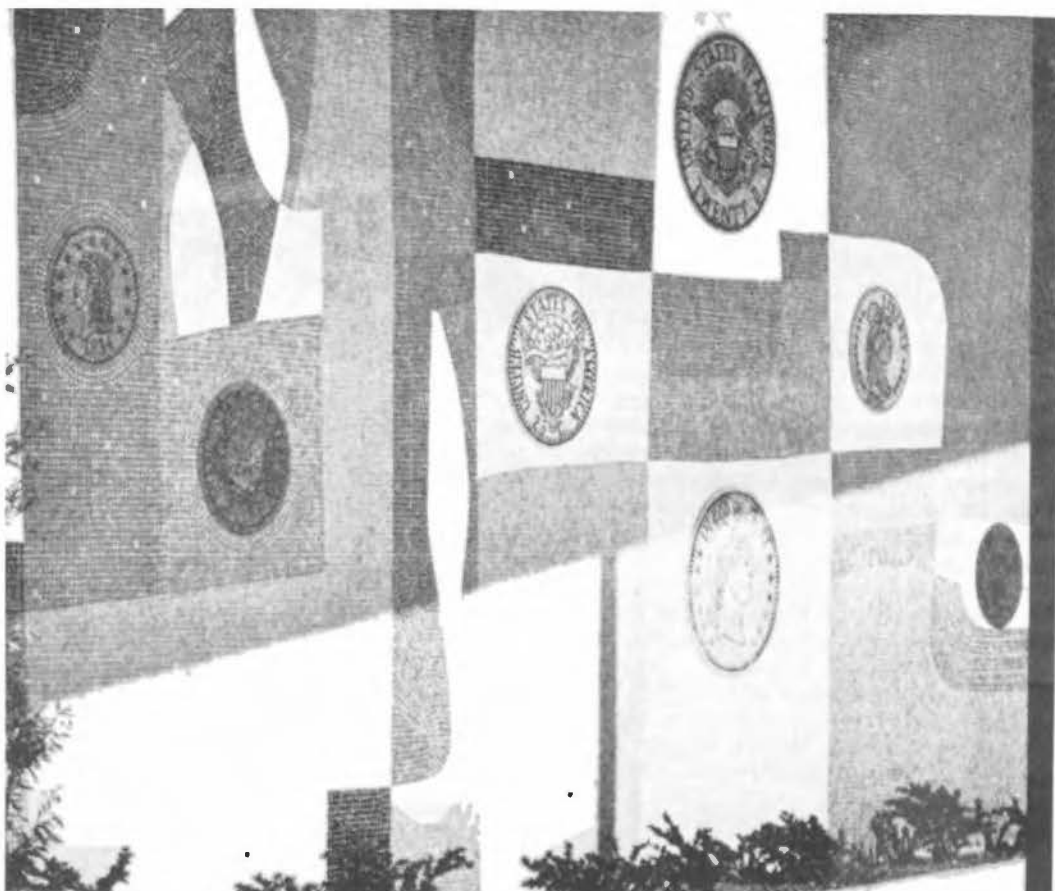
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What conclusions should we draw? Well, let's be cautious of sweeping dogmatism, but here are a couple of tentative thoughts:

1—There are few more powerful stimulants than discovery of a "mint error" to that curious combination of optimism and larceny that lurks in nearly all of us. So if you're the fortunate discoverer, stop, breathe deeply, take a firm hold on yourself, and try to view your coup against a suitably cosmic background.

2—If a generous person offers you a "virtually unique" mint error, thank him in a grave and courtly manner, count slowly to one thousand before you decide to buy, and review meanwhile the opportunities for profitable investment in wildcat mining shares.

(If both you gentlemen follow this advice, we may be able to keep the mint-error problem under more or less sober control.)



THERE'S MONEY IN ART!

Bank Mosaic Shows Rare Coins

A huge tile coin mosaic, decorating the front of the First-Willow Office of the First National Bank of San Jose, was completed in September.

The gigantic mosaic, covering more than 500 square feet of the building front facing the intersection of South First and Willow Sts., was 16 months in design and preparation, and contains more than 112,000 pieces of imported Italian tile.

Through the use of unusual shapes and color combinations, Mrs. Mary Henry of Los Altos designed the mosaic to catch the eye at a distance. As the viewer moves closer, the detail of seven rare coins is revealed.

Each coin, the bronze Indian head cent, 2-, 25- and 50-cent pieces, and \$2½, \$5 and \$20 gold pieces, is done in the Byzantine smalti technique, originally used in eleventh and twelfth century mosaic work. Al-

though greatly enlarged, varying in size from 18 to 31 inches in diameter, the coins are proportionate to one another in relation to sizes of the coins themselves.

In order to give a realistic appearance, small pieces of tile in the coins are treated with real gold, silver or copper foil fused to the ceramic, and then protected with a thin coating of glass. Most coins in the mosaic are collectors' items.

Mrs. Henry first attached the tile face down on paper. Then, slab by slab, portions of the mosaic were imbedded on the bank wall. Paper was removed later to reveal design.

"Those who appreciate modern art will see it as a modern work, while those who are more realistic will be attracted to details and the less abstract appearance of coins," Mrs. Henry said.

The Food Stamp Plan

By ARLIE R. SLABAUGH, Chicago, Ill.

The Food Stamp Plan began on a modest scale in Rochester, N. Y., during May 1939, under auspices of the U. S. Government. Its purpose was two-fold: (1) Federal aid already was being given to needy persons when this plan was put into use, but by putting a portion of the relief payments in food stamps, the Government hoped to raise the dietary standards of those receiving aid, the surplus foods generally being such "rich" items as butter, eggs and pork; (2) A means of reducing stockpiles of surplus foods, which even then were a Department of Agriculture headache, although not to the extent they are now.

The plan was devised originally by Milo R. Perkins, at the request of then Secretary of Agriculture Henry A. Wallace. Mr. Perkins was head of the Federal Surplus Commodity Corporation, one of President Roosevelt's alphabetical groups, a division of the Department of Agriculture that at the outset handled this plan.



F.S.C.C. FOOD STAMP

At first an experiment, the plan proved popular and by November 1939 it was operating in 14 communities. When the F.S.C.C. was merged with the Division of Marketing and Marketing Agreements on July 1, 1940, to form a new unit, the Surplus Marketing Administration (SMA), the stamps were in use in 83 commun-

ities, and every state except West Virginia and Delaware. Not long afterward, metropolitan New York City was included in the plan and at its peak in 1941 4,000,000 persons were using the stamps. The program was discontinued on March 1, 1943, because there were no more surpluses — food for the U. S. Army and U. S. allies during World War II took care of that.

Stamps were of two kinds, almost identical in design but different in color, one being orange and the other blue. Both were of 25-cent denomination. The stamps read F.S.C.C. in upper left and right corners when this unit supervised the plan from May 1939 to July 1940. These stamps bear no gum. After the Surplus Marketing Administration took over, the stamps were altered to read U.S.D.A. (United States Department of Agriculture) at top corners. These stamps had gum on reverse. The F.S.C.C. stamp is scarcer than the U.S.D.A. variety, since it was used for little more than a year, and at that time the plan did not reach nearly so many people as it did later. About \$10,000,000 in surplus food a month was being disposed of in 1941 with the U.S.D.A. stamps, and on that basis it would seem that these stamps would be common. While the U.S.D.A. food stamp is the more "common" kind, neither is easily obtainable.



USDA FOOD AND COTTON STAMPS

The Food Stamp Plan worked like this: It was handled through local merchants in order not to disrupt established grocery outlets. Thus the merchants were happy with the plan. Farmers sold their surplus to the Government at a fair price, so they were happy about it, too. And those who received Government relief liked it, because of the free stamps. In relief payments each week, in lieu of cash, \$1 in the form of orange stamps was given for each member of a family. With these a family could purchase any type of food except tobacco and liquor. And, with every dollar's worth of orange stamps, the purchaser received 50 cents in blue stamps — free. For the blue stamps local grocers issued food that currently was designated by the Government as “surplus” (usually butter, eggs, etc.). The Government then picked up the tab by redeeming the blue stamps in cash from the grocers.

There also was a similar Cotton Stamp Plan, which began in Memphis, Tenn., in May 1940. Those receiving these stamps could buy cotton articles such as cloth. This plan did not have the widespread use that the Food Stamp Plan had. It was used mainly in certain areas of the South. Not much is known about the Cotton Stamp Plan because of its relatively restricted use, but it appears that originally there was only one type of stamp, printed in black on gummed white paper, for use in purchasing cotton goods. The plan was changed later to work the same way as the Food Stamp Plan, whereby two stamps were needed, one for “regular” purchases of cotton goods, and one for “surplus” items. For this, the same type of stamp was used, but in colors, one green, one brown. Cotton stamps are much scarcer than food stamps and can be considered rare.

All stamps were issued in booklet form with \$5 worth in each booklet. When the Food Stamp Plan began in Rochester with 5000 of 17,000 families on relief participating, it was voluntary. Those on government relief rolls did not automatically receive the stamps in commodities where the plan was used. (Later they did.) Instead, the orange stamp books were purchased by those on relief. Then, as later, these stamps were redeemed by merchants cooperating with the plan. (Blue stamps, though, always were given free at the 1 to 2 ratio. This served as an incentive to buy the books.) The \$5 booklet form was retained when the stamps became part of relief payments. Size of family determined number of stamps issued. Relief agencies detached the proper number of stamps. There were four stamps to a page or sheet, all with outer edge trimmed. All single stamps, therefore, have straight edge at top or bottom, with other sides perforated. Some stamps are overprinted SPECIMEN. Illustrations are enlarged. Actual stamp size is approximately 26 x 40 mm. The specimen stamp, which has wider margins, measures approximately 30 x 47 mm.



FIG. 1 — 1, Arizona; 2 and 3, Illinois; 4, Utah.
Photographs, by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, enlarged three-sixteenths.

Sales Tax Tokens

By PAUL H. HAMM, San Diego

This year approximately \$4 billion will be paid into the several state treasuries in the form of state sales tax, which, it has been estimated, is about half of all the income that the states will collect from their citizens.

Did you know that the state sales tax is a very recent form of taxation, having first been inaugurated in 1920, although as a form of taxation it had been considered as early as the first half of the 19th century by the U.S. Government?

After the close of World War I, the automobile, which, until that time was more a contraption used by the wealthier people, and, at some times, was an unreliable means of arriving at a destination, started getting more generally in use and was fast putting Old Dobbin into retirement. With the advent of the automobile, the problem of roads suitable for faster travel, and travel in all kinds of weather, began to be felt. Therefore, all the states started thinking of bettering their already existing roads by widening, straightening and surfacing them. This, however, cost money, and it was up to the states to find a way to raise it.

In 1920 it was decided that if a sales tax were put on gasoline, the ones using the improvements would pay their cost.

Thus we find in 1920 a new form of taxation which has grown from a cent on each gallon of gas sold to the present-day tax on every item sold, which averages about 3½%. The rate varies in different states; also, what is taxed. Some states, such as California, do not place a sales tax on foodstuffs, while others, such as Kansas, do. Some states even go so far as to collect sales tax on rent, sale of property, stocks and bonds; in fact, on anything that is exchanged or used.

Not until 1933, however, was there any great need for the states to change their way of taxation, as the old and tried methods were adequate for keeping their budgets pretty well balanced.

After trying to weather the great depression of 1930 for three years, with the national income way down and the cost of keeping people at work through such projects as NRA, CWA, PWA, etc., it not only used up the alphabet but depleted state treasuries.

In the 24 months from July 1933 to July 1935, we find 24 states passing state sales tax laws to replenish coffers scraped clean by relief demands. All these were called emergency tax laws, supposedly to be used only for a short time, but either

the emergency has lasted a longer time than expected, or our lawmakers felt they had too good a thing to relinquish. At any rate, we find now, 22 years later, we still have not only a sales tax but one that is considerably higher.

These laws, although probably born from sheer necessity, met with a lot of opposition. The man in the street started grumbling when he found he was supposed to pay a tax of two cents on a dollar purchase and that when he bought a 10-cent article, he was taxed a cent. Bear in mind there was a depression on, and to be charged even part of a cent was not taken without a great deal of protest.

In the spring of 1935, in 44 cities and hamlets in the state of Illinois, there appeared tokens issued by civic organizations, chambers of commerce and in one case, a Lions Club, a metal token good for $\frac{1}{4}$ cent to be used for sales tax payments and redeemable at designated places such as banks, chambers of commerce or other business clubs, for face value.

These, the first sales tax tokens to make their appearance, were the forerunners of a great many more from 12 states that were to plague the people for several years to come.

The Illinois Provisional tokens, as they are now called, probably are the most interesting and certainly are the hardest to complete.

There really is very little known about the Illinois Provisionals, the exact date they made their appearance or which towns first issued them, although they all made their appearance almost simultaneously in the early spring of 1935. They also were very short-lived, as they were replaced by the Illinois State tokens, which were issued the first week of July 1935.

All 44 varieties bear the inscription $\frac{1}{4}$ -cent, which again no one can explain, as that would require a token for a $12\frac{1}{2}$ -cent purchase. The tax in Illinois was 2%. Each has the city's name, where it was good and the place it could be redeemed. Some were redeemable in U.S. money; others, good for $\frac{1}{4}$ -cent in trade. This would seem to make those issuing them guilty of counterfeiting, as it is unlawful for anyone other than the U.S. Government to

issue a coin or token to be used in general circulation.

Among these, we find the greatest rarities of any of the tokens issued. No one knows, it seems, how many were issued by each city, and it is supposed the biggest share of them were destroyed when they were superseded by the state tokens. And, too, they were made of metal; copper, brass and aluminum. So it is probable a great many were melted up in 1941 for scrap metal.

As early as 1938, Di Bello, a well-known numismatist, started a collection of tokens and compiled a want list, now out of print, which is a very desirable authority on the subject. About 1941, George Magee of Philadelphia and also the late Herb Rowald of Kansas City had accumulated a great number of these tokens. Rowald started compiling all the data he could find so he could put into print enough information about them and have available a workable listing. Unfortunately, he died before he had it completed. Wayne Johnston of St. Louis informs me that he was given permission by Mrs. Rowald to go through Herb's material, and is now working on a listing of Illinois Provisionals that, I hope, will be released soon.

Ralph A. Mitchell of Palo Alto is another who has been a long-time collector of tax tokens. He still has most of the varieties and quite a stock of them. Ralph has helped me a great deal with my collection and I probably have some I never could have obtained except for his help.

The token that has been considered rarest is the Astoria, only 10 being known. However, I believe the El Paso and the Roanoke are rarer than the Astoria. Just try to find one!

On July 1, 1935, Illinois issued the first state sales tax token, which was made of aluminum in the value of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mills. Just three weeks later (July 29, 1935), Henry Morgenthau Jr., then secretary of the treasury, ordered the state to withdraw them, as they too closely resembled the dime. He also warned that it was the prerogative of the U.S. Government only to issue coins. Ames, Illinois state finance director, ordered the round one discontinued and issued a square one in its stead, but failed to recall the round ones. This

resulted in confusion, as some merchants refused to accept them while others continued to do so.

As I have said before, this form of taxation never has been popular, not only making the consumer unhappy about paying it, but also the businessman because of the extra book work and trouble of collecting it. So in Illinois, the state sales tax law was taken to the courts and early in the fall of 1935, the Illinois State Supreme Court handed down a decision declaring the tax illegal. Not to be daunted, however, and greatly in need of this income, the legislature quickly passed a "retailer's occupational tax" of 3% which raised the tax 1% and was to be levied on the gross sale of all merchandise sold.

For a short time after the enactment of this occupational tax, no attempt was made to pass it on to the consumer. Finally, the large department stores hit upon the idea of posting notices in their stores that "3% will be added on all quoted prices to cover the added expense of doing business in Illinois". This phrase also was carried in newspaper advertisements. Before long, every business concern in the state was collecting a non-existent sales tax, and tokens were being used. The use of the tokens, however, lasted only a short time and within a year they were practically non-existent.

About the same time all this was going on in Illinois, four other states also were readying a system of sales tax collection by use of tokens. On Aug. 26, 1935, Missouri's famous "milk bottle top" tokens made their appearance. This state, having decided to use tokens, found that a printed cardboard could be obtained quickly and cheaply, so an order was given for a round cardboard token printed only on one side in denominations of 1 and 5 mills. When people received cardboard disks in change for their tax cent, the reaction was varied, with the usual gripes and humorous comments we Americans invariably make when something new comes out.

The terms "cooty money", "china money" and "smidgets" were used in reference to these tokens. The Republicans around St. Louis seized on them for political purposes and printed on the backs, "Vote Republican and end the sales tax in Mis-

souri". The second issue was made smaller and the backs were printed, showing what the tax was being used for. But the cardboard soon was found to be very unsatisfactory as the tokens quickly wore out and showed soil. The state next put a law into effect, June 8, 1937, that Missouri-mined zinc was to be used. These were issued in 1 and 5 mills and were used until metal became scarce in 1941. Then plastic was substituted and is still being used, Missouri being one of only two states still using tokens to collect its tax. However, nearly all the stores are using the bracket system except the 5 and 10 cent stores or others handling small sales.

Washington, Colorado and New Mexico also began issuing tokens in the summer or early fall of 1935.

With the appearance of these tokens in five states by September, Secretary of the Treasury Morgenthau again issued warnings to the states that it was unlawful for anyone other than the U.S. Government to issue a coin or token to be used in general circulation. He also informed them that the U.S. Government would start coining ½-cent and 1-mill pieces which would be placed in general circulation; thereby, a legitimate coin could be used for the collection of tax. The late President Franklin D. Roosevelt designed these two coins. The ½ cent was to have a hole in the center and the 1 mill was to be square. When submitted to the House Coinage Committee, however, it balked and refused to act. The states, the committee said, could shift for themselves. So Uncle Sam watched four states defy his ban but did not prosecute.

Washington decided to issue tokens early in the summer of 1935 but was late getting them started. They were not placed in circulation until August of that year, which gave rise to another provisional. The merchants in need of making change when collecting the tax on less than dollar sales decided not to wait for the state issue, but to make some of their own. Several cities in Washington issued cardboard or wooden tax token scrip to be used until the state got its tokens into circulation. These are all quite rare and are very hard to find.



FIG. 2. — 1, Arizona; 2, New Mexico; 3, Colorado; 4 and 5, Oklahoma; 6 and 8, Missouri; 7 and 10, Utah; 9 and 12, Washington; 11, Colorado. Sizes increased one-fourth.
Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis.

When the state of Washington did get its tokens into circulation, they first were made of cardboard and for one-fifth cent. Later that year they were made of aluminum and bore the date 1935 and stated that they were for the tax on a 10-cent or less purchase. In 1941, the tokens were made from fiber and bore the date 1941. Plastic later was adopted and was used until tokens were discontinued.

Colorado first issued the square aluminum token in September 1935. Later they were changed to round aluminum and in 1941, to fiber, and then to plastic.

The New Mexico tax law of May 1934 provided for the use of tokens; however, none was issued until the fall of 1935. Dated 1935, 1-mill aluminum and 5-mill copper were the first used. Plastic was substituted in 1942.

In the next four years the seven other states which have used tokens issued them, Kansas and Mississippi in 1936; Oklahoma, Alabama, Utah, Louisiana and Arizona in 1937. The greatest number of varieties are to be found in the Oklahoma and Alabama tokens, with eight each. The different states had different ideas as to composition of the material from which to make their tokens. At one time or another, cardboard, fiber, rubber, copper, brass, aluminum and plastic was used.

Starting sometime in 1941, their popularity began to wane and one state after another discontinued their use. When Mississippi, in 1952, took the token law from its books, all but Oklahoma and Missouri had changed over to the bracket system. Oklahoma and Missouri are the only states that still call for the sales tax to be collected with tokens; however, according to J. D. Dunn, chairman of the Oklahoma Tax Com-

mission, no tokens have been sold from his office since 1952, although a supply is still kept on hand.

Two more states should be mentioned, California and Kentucky. Although there never was a state token issued in either, provisional tokens were used in both. These were issued and used by merchants for a short time to collect the tax on purchases from their places of business. All were of cardboard except for a very scarce one of copper put out by an ice company in Louisville, Ky. Ohio also had a system which should be included in the sales tax tokens, but since no metal token ever was issued, I will not go into it at this time. I also have two tokens from Nebraska which I will mention. Nebraska never has had a sales tax nor has it had a bonded debt. Nebraskans are proud of this fact. To poke fun at the states that were using the tokens, someone in Nebraska issued tokens on which are printed this information: On one side, "We don't take funny money in Nebraska"; on the other, the facts of the state's financial well-being are well publicized.

When the states discontinued the use of tokens, they called them in and a redemption period was set. The tokens redeemed by the state then were destroyed.

The subject of token varieties could be gone into, but space will not permit it here. Suffice it to say that there are two types of plastic, transparent and opaque; there are large and small letter varieties, etc.

So here we find a coinage by the states that covers a period of about 20 years, and although the U.S. Government certainly never sanctioned the tokens, nevertheless they were in circulation and in some cases were even used as legal tender.

Tin Hat Money of Malaya

By H. F. BOWKER, Oakland

From the earliest times, Malaya has been a tin producing country and it is but natural that this metal should have become a medium of barter. Ingots of tin have been used for centuries for the purposes of trade and exchange.

These ingots have taken a number of varied shapes. Some have been found shaped like boats, some like sea shells, and others like loaves of bread. One form, however, seems to have become the most popular and is in the shape of a truncated pyramid. It is from this type that there was derived an actual coinage, as



distinct from the ingot, which must have been bartered by weight. Chinese chroniclers of the 15th century tell of the use of blocks of tin in Malaya as currency and describe how it was bound into bundles of tens and forties.

The "hat money" or **tampang** used in Pahang is the coinage in question. First came the truncated pyramids, next the same pyramids but with the addition of a plinth or foot, and lastly the same shape but with the plinth made broader and the pyramid smaller and hollow. The plinth or broad edge received the inscription and usually was pierced so that a number of these pieces could be strung together and carried easily. They fitted one inside the other like a pile of hats.

In the early days **tampang**s were not made in small sizes. One traveler who visited Pahang complained that however small a purchase he made, he had to pay a whole **tampang** for it. He was told that any efforts which had been made in the past to improve the coinage had resulted in plagues of wild animals, so that they had been abandoned. This was doubted, as he was aware that the natives were always willing to keep the change. However, in 1847 two smaller sizes were issued.

Originally 16 **tampang**s equaled one dollar, the "**ringgit meriam**" or gun dollar, the Spanish coin with the Pillars of Hercules on reverse, which the Malays mistakenly supposed to represent guns. The new additions were valued at one and two cents. The **tampang**s circulated in Pahang until 1893, when they were demonetized, removed from circulation and sent to the Treasury in Singapore, where they were melted down for their metal.

The Chinese made copies of the **tampang**s with the names of their **hongs** inscribed on them as a guarantee of quality. These inscriptions usually comprise four Chinese characters on the "crown" of the hat. Some makers of these tokens, who seem to have had the authority of the local sultans, found that their coins were being forged, and hit upon the expedient of including a fragment of copper wire in the tin. They also are found with the impressions of "chops" on them similar to those on the Mexican dollars which circulated in South China. Some of these have been found with the word "LIBERTAD" in Roman letters, copied from the inscription on the Mexican dollars.

A drawing of a hinged two-piece mold in which **tampang**s were cast is to be found in Sir Richard Winstedt's *A History of Malaya*. A. Rentse, a keen numismatist, is reported to have found an old Chinese tinsmith in Kota Bharu still using a **tampang** mold to make ingots from his scrap tin.

This form of currency was not readily acceptable to the Chinese commercial class, which forms a large and influential part of the population of Malaya, and they soon started to manufacture round flat coins with square holes at their centers in imitation of the conventional Chinese **ch'ien** or cash.

The information contained herein is from an article by C. H. Dakers which was originally published in *The Straits Times Annual* for 1938.

Tin hat money, from the C. V. Kappen collection, is illustrated about two-thirds actual size. Actual width of the smallest piece is about 28 mm. or 1 1/16 in. The medium size measures approximately 41 mm. or 1 5/8 in. and the largest, about 73-74 mm. or 2 7/8 in.



Jetons of the Great Dutch Revolt

By RUSSELL RULAU, Sidney, Ohio

Introduction

A jeton, or reckoning counter, was a device used from ancient times to compute arithmetic at a time when most people were not educated enough to compute without the help of the counting board.

Jetons in ancient and medieval times were struck in coin-like form and contained devices somewhat resembling current coins. During the Great Dutch Revolt against Spanish rule (1566-1609) jetons were used also as political propaganda and helped to record the stirring events of the bloody 43-year war.

By noting the agonies of the struggle on the jetons of this interesting period of history, the numismatist may chronicle the course of the rebellion from its inception to its close. The Dutch jetons of this period, handled as they were by all classes of people, were a great element of psychological warfare for the Dutch insurgents.

The Revolt

From the time of his accession to the throne of Spain in 1556, Philip II was determined to impose Spanish culture, Spanish religion and Spanish overlordship on the Netherlands, whereas his father, Charles V, had always treated the Netherlands benevolently.

The excesses of the Inquisition, the church courts which were designed to stamp out heresy, precipitated the so-called Revolt of the Beggars in 1566.

The Dutch leaders were William the Silent, Prince of Orange and Count of Nassau; General Count Egmont; De Brederode; and Admiral Count Philip van Horn. The Spanish general Fernando Alvarez, Duke of Alva, led the Spanish forces.

William fled to Germany in 1567 rather than submit to Alva, but Egmont and Horn led a Dutch faction which tried to appease the ferocious duke. Both Egmont and Horn were ordered beheaded in 1568 by Alva, the treacherous event taking place in June.

Dutch armies under William and his brother, Louis of Nassau, invaded Brabant in 1568 but were repulsed. William sought sanctuary in France.

Under Spanish control the country seethed, until the Revolution of Despair began in 1572 against Alva. William again invaded Holland and the "sea-beggars"—pirates of Dutch inclination — took Briel by storm. After Briel, the provinces of Holland and Zeeland declared William stadholder (1572).

Alva now began his counterattack, capturing Haarlem in the summer of 1573 after a fierce 7-month siege, killing Louis of Nassau in battle and laying siege to Leyden in 1574. Leyden's siege lasted 13 months and is considered one of the great sieges of the world.

In 1575 William relieved Leyden by flooding the surrounding country after opening the dikes and sailing his "sea-beggars" right up to the city walls. Alva fled and was recalled by Philip II in 1576.

The Spanish soldiery, unpaid for years, mutinied in 1576 as soon as Alva and his iron discipline were gone, and they turned in fury on the placid southern cities, especially Antwerp. This was known as the "Spanish Fury." The Spanish Fury hastened the Pacification of Ghent, signed by seventeen provinces.

The Ghent accord did not last long because of jealousy between Protestant north and Catholic south. Don John, hero of Lepanto, replaced Alva and tried conciliation. He paid off the Spanish soldiers and sent them home. However, he died of fever in 1580.

Before Don John's death, the Union of Utrecht was signed by Utrecht, Friesland, Zeeland, Gelderland and Holland in 1579, and William was named stadholder over all. By 1581 the Assembly of Holland took the next logical step, declared Philip deposed as king, and chose Philip of Anjou in his stead.

The Antwerpers soon chased out the ineffective new French king, and William was undisputed master.

Alexander of Parma next came to the Netherlands to rule for Philip. In 1584 a Frenchman in Parma's pay, Balthasar Gerard, assassinated William the Silent at Delft for the 25,000 gold crowns offered by Philip. Thus passed the greatest of the Dutch leaders.

With both William and Louis dead, Maurice of Nassau now became stadholder (1584). While William had been a great statesman, Maurice was the better soldier. He called upon Queen Elizabeth of England for help and she sent a force under the Earl of Leicester and Sir Philip Sidney, the noted poet.

The English and Dutch under Leicester and Maurice won the Battle of Zutphen in 1586, with Sidney losing his life there. It is interesting to note that John Smith, of Jamestown and Pocahontas fame on our own shores, won his captaincy in this engagement.

Leicester vacillated after Zutphen and at length Maurice, deserted by Leicester and the English, turned in fury on the Spaniards and their Belgian allies. He captured Breda in 1590; Zutphen, Deventer and Nijmegen in 1591; Geertruidenberg in 1593; and Groningen in 1594.

Gaining men and backing as he pushed the Spaniards hard, he won the difficult Battle of Turnhout in Brabant in 1597, and had a splendid victory over the Spanish at Nieuwport in 1600. After Nieuwport he defended Ostend for three years against Spanish assault.

In 1609, Spain, exhausted by the war and with Maurice stronger than ever, signed a truce with the Dutch. Thus ended the great revolt of the Dutch against Spain, but did not settle the question of independence for the Dutch.

Not content with a mere truce, Maurice renewed the war in 1621, dying in 1625. Frederick Henry, his younger brother, became stadholder and carried on the war of vengeance, which became largely a naval war (except for the great siege of Breda in 1625).

Off Malacca a Dutch fleet destroyed a Spanish fleet four times its size. In 1628 Admiral Heijn captured the Spanish silver fleet and its great treasure.

In the battle of the Downs, off England, Admiral Tromp defeated 50 Spanish ships in 1639. Finally, in 1648, by the general Peace of Westphalia, Spain recognized the complete independence of Holland. Eighty-two years had passed between the first Dutch outbreak in 1566 to independence in 1648.

Jetons Trace The Course Of War

In the Netherlands, historical counters were given as "etrennes" every year and the kings presented them to the officers of their household, just as in the French custom from whence the Dutch probably borrowed the idea.

In 1569, with the country safely contained by Alva, with Egmont and Horn executed and William driven to France, it was "business as usual" and the Bureau of Finance issued a computing jeton for the reckoning of accounts.

Philip's bust to right is on the obverse, with the legend PHILIPPVS D.G. HISPANIARVM REX 1569 (Philip by the Grace of God King of the Spains). On reverse are the crowned arms and G(ectoner) DV BVREAV DES FINANCES (jeton of the Ministry of Finance).



The next jeton, as most of the rest following, was issued by the Dutch insurgents. In 1573 the Battle of Briel had been won and Alva had taken Haarlem and Dutch resistance had stiffened. This is reflected on: A girl wearing Flemish hat and bearing a sword, seated in a wicket (symbol of the revolt), **LIBERTAS PATRIAE** (Liberty for the Fatherland); on reverse a goatherd keeps a wolf away from his goat, **DIFFVGITE CAPRIMVLGI**.

The Spanish side countered with a propaganda jeton of its own in 1577. Showing Philip II and Don John facing on obverse, the legend reads **GRATIA DEI SVMVS QVOD SVMVS** (By the grace of God we are what we are). Reverse: Crowned arms, **CONCORDIA RES PARVAE CRESCVNT** (By concord small things increase). It is signed **PA**.

A Dutch issue of 1579 shows Dutch and Spaniards engaged in battle, **PRAESTAT PVGNARE PRO PATRIA**. Reverse: Two headless corpses, **QVAM SIMVLATA PACE DECIPI** 1579 (It is better to fight for the fatherland than be deceived by a simulated peace.) This legend capitalized on the two headless corpses, intended to show Egmont and Horn who had placed their trust in the Spaniards.

By 1580 Don John was dead and the Union of Utrecht was signed. The next jeton shows a seated lion before a column, **ROSIS LEONEM LORIS MVS LIBERAT**. Reverse: Bishop, burgher and lion, **LIBER REVINCIRI LEO PERNEGAT**.

In 1586 Maurice won at Zutphen. A jeton shows supplicants before a king on his throne, **E.R. EST ALTRIX ESVRIENTIVM EVM**. Reverse: **JEHOVAH** in Jewish symbols in radiant clouds over sword, **SERMO DEI QVO ENSG ANCIPI ACVTIOR**.

Burgher stands between Pestilence and Death, **MVLTA SVNT MALA IMPIORVM** 1587. Reverse: flowers and cornucopia, **QVL DNO FIDIT BONITATE EIVS CIRCVM, DABITVR**.

Seated female in horseless chariot reading a book, **TANDEM BONA CAUSA TRIVMPHANT** 1589. Reverse: Bird feeding young atop tree, **SI NON VIRIOVS AT CAUSA POTIORES, BELLV MECESS**.

Farmer sowing his field, **DEVS DAT INCREMENTVM** 1589. Reverse: Farmer scything grain, **SPE INCERTA CERTVM MIHI LABOR-EM SVSTVLI**.

In 1590 Maurice took Breda. This is commemorated on: Group of Spaniards (?) entering skiff, **PARATI VINCERE AVT MORI 4 MONAR MARTII** (prepared to conquer or die four ? of war). Reverse: inscribed **BREDA/A SERVITVTE/ HISPANA VIN/ DICATA DVCTV/ PRINCIPIS MAV/ RITII A NASS/ A° C1717XC** (1590). (Breda delivered from Spanish slavery under the leadership of Prince Maurice of Nassau).

The capture of Zutphen and Deventer in 1591 caused this jeton: View of siege scene. Reverse inscribed: **OB/ SECVRITATEM/ DITIONI VLTRAIE/ ZVTPHANIA DAVEN/ TRIAQVE CAPTIS/ RECVPERAT-AM/ HISPANIS EX BAT/ QVOQVE FVGATIS/ C1717XCI** (1591).

Girl in wicket, **PAX PATET INSIDIIS** 1591. (Peace—bad things). Reverse: Girl and soldier in wicket, **TVTA SALVS BELLO** (safe safety in war).

The capture of Vetmars and Cavard in 1592 occasioned this jeton: crowned rampant lion holding sword and bunch of arrows, **ORD PROVIN GER INF DECR PVB CVDI IVS-SERVNT**. Reverse: inscribed **STEN-**

EVICO/ VETMARS COVORD FOR
RECVPERATIS/ HOSTE PVLISO
CVM/ GLORIA DOMVS/ NASSO-
VIAE/ C1717XCII (1592).

Things were far from normal for the Spaniards in 1593, but a computing jeton was issued, dated that year, from Antwerp. Philip II bust right, PHLE P LA GRACE DE DIEV ROY DE SPAZC (Philip by the Grace of God King of Spain), inverted Liberty cap on pole beneath. Reverse: crowned arms, GECT DV BVR DES FINANCES (Jeton of the Bureau of Finance).

A silver-plated jeton issued by the Dutch in 1594 has on obverse: man cutting words in stone table, SCRIBIT IN MARMORE LAESVS 1594, GELDER. Reverse: Man standing, arms outspread, VIRESCT VVLN ERE VIR TVS.

Men besieging a tower, INGEMIN- ANDO SVBRVET. Reverse: inscribed CASTRACON/ SPEXIT IN SE/ ADVERSARIA/ SELVOLDA CVM/ BISLECHIO AD/ NOV C1717/ XVC (1595).

Battle scene, FRVSTRA OPPVG- NAT VSQVEDVM PROTEGIT DEVS. Reverse: girl and soldiers in wicket, VIGILATE ET ORATE DEO CONFIDENTES C1717 XCVI (1596).

Standing figures clasping hands, FIDE ET CONSTANTIA. Reverse: hand from clouds about to crush pig with rock, CAESA FIRMABANT FOEDERA PORCA 1596.

The Battle of Turnhout in 1597 was commemorated on another Dutch jeton: crowned rampant lion bearing sword and bunch of arrows, SOLI DEO HONOR ET GLORIA. Reverse: ORDIN/ AVSPIC PRIN/ MAVRI DVCTV/ HOSTE AD TVRN/ HOVTVM CAESO/ DECEM OPIDIS

ET/ TRIBVS ARCIBVS/ EXPVG
ET TOTA/ CISRHE DITIO/ NE
PACTA/ 1597.

Conclusion

In this summary, only jetons in my own collection are described. However, these are only a representative sampling of a vast body of these interesting and scarce pieces which add much knowledge to the history of the Netherlands.

In the bibliography which follows, some selected works on the subject are listed for the benefit of advanced reading on this series. It is regrettable that most of the works are long out of print, and only a very few numismatic scholars find the series worth the effort to write about today.

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TOKENS AND MEDALS



TOKENS & MEDALS

A general account of the world's coinage would not be complete without some mention of certain categories of objects which resemble coins in fabric and shape and, like coins, have types or designs and inscriptions stamped on one or both faces. These various series are generally of late medieval or of modern date and, since most of them were produced in quantity, they furnish some of the most interesting collecting avenues for the numismatist. Tokens have been used from the time of the Caesars for substitutes to regular coinage and also for purposes of commercial advertisement or political propaganda and satire.

Medals encompass all ages and all countries as the finest expression of art. Perhaps no other phase of our hobby can create such a magnetic interest for all collectors . . . since in medals we see a broader and truer picture of history, religion, people, art and even the mundane of everyday life.

The field of token and medals covers the largest area of numismatics from a collecting standpoint . . . and is by far the most active today in worldwide production.



Recent Issues of Tokens and Medals

By DOROTHY E. BEAULIEU

EDUCOIN CO. MEDALS

Sixth in the commemorative series issued by Educoin Co., Inc., is the Andrew Jackson—War of 1812 Sesquicentennial medal struck under official auspices of the Louisiana Historical Society. Other Educoin issues this year will be the 1962 Rex "Doubloon" and the Louisiana Statehood Sesquicentennial medal. The latter, sponsored by the Louisiana Historical Society, will be released April 15.

The Educoin Co. prefers to design and strike sponsored and private issued medals but on occasion will continue to produce pieces which it feels are significant from a civic or patriotic standpoint. Present plans are for at least 11 other private issues for 1962 but not more than three public issues.

Medallions struck thus far are 1960 Rex "Doubloon"; 1961 Rex "Doubloon"; 1961 Civil War Centennial; 1961 Steamboat (Sesquicentennial-Western Rivers); 1961 Blessing of the Fleet (Morgan City, La.); 1961 St. Patrick-1500 year obitus; 1962 Andrew Jackson; 1962 Rex "Doubloon." All of the public issues (Blessing of the Fleet excepted) carry .999 fine silver strikes and are unlimited as to pattern strikes in aluminum, since those are issued for educational purposes only.

The Blessing of the Fleet had a silver strike of only 650, but will become an annual issue of 2900 strikes in future. Some of the private issues, such as Rex, are available to the public upon inquiry to Educoin Co., Inc., 940 Perdido St., New Orleans 12, La.

SAINT-GAUDENS MEDAL

Toivo Johnson, Box 252, Brewer, Maine, has designed and issued the Augustus Saint-Gaudens medal, first in a series commemorating famous coin designers. Obverse shows Saint-Gaudens' award winning portrayal of Christopher Columbus, executed for the Columbian Exposition. On reverse are shown his home in Cornish, N. H., and his finest work in coins, the Roman date double eagle. Medals, 3 inches in diameter, are priced at \$5.50 bronze and \$30 silver.

IOWA CONSERVATION DAY

A medal was issued by Medal Collectors Club of Iowa in conjunction with Iowa Conservation Field Day and State Plowing Match in Marshalltown, Sept. 22. Reverse shows club emblem. Medals are 1 5/16 in. and are available in sterling silver at \$3.25; bronze, 75 cents; aluminum, 35 cents.

KSNA CONVENTION MEDAL

The KSNA medal was issued in connection with the first annual convention of the Kentucky State Numismatic Association at Louisville November 3, 4 and 5. It commemorates the Civil War Centennial 1961, and Kentucky, the state having two presidents at one time, Lincoln of the North and Davis of the South.

Obverse pictures bust portraits of Lincoln and Davis, with the legend "United We Stand, Divided We Fall . . . Civil War Centennial." Reverse depicts a replica of the famous Kentucky Cent, a private issue which circulated in the United States circa 1793. Each state is shown as a star in a triangle with Kentucky at the zenith. Struck in dollar size, the medal is offered in bronze, sterling silver and platinum, the latter by special order only. Sterling silver medals are limited to an issue of 1000 and are serially numbered. One medal was struck in solid gold and presented to the governor of Kentucky for placement in the state museum at Frankfort. Sterling silver and bronze medals are priced at \$10 and \$2, respectively.

PONY EXPRESS TERMINATION

Completion of the Transcontinental Telegraph Oct. 24, 1861, brought to an end the 18-month operation of the heroic Pony Express. That same date in 1961 marks the end of the official centennial celebration. By special Act of Congress, the Association commemorated the event by offering the "Termination Medal" as its final and only issue of 1961. It is available in two sizes and metals.

The large 2 1/4 inch silver medal depicts the coming of the telegraph and the dismounted Pony Express Rider who has completed his service. Obverse features heads of owners and operators of the Pony Express: Russell, Majors and Waddell, and an old telegraph key. Only 1000 of these medals were produced by the United States Mint.

The small medal, 1 5/16 in. in di-

ameter, also depicts the end of the Pony Express operation and the coming of the telegraph. It is slightly different in design due to its smaller size. Silver medals are priced at \$4.50 and bronze at \$1.50.

PRESIDENTIAL ART MEDALS

A George Washington medal, third in the Presidential Art Series, was issued early in December. Previous issues honored Kennedy and Lincoln. Three or four medals a year will be struck until the series is complete. New medals will be struck thereafter as Presidents are inaugurated.

A RARITY SCALE

Some numismatic works give the value of the coins being described at the time of publication. Even then, such prices can only be comparative as the value of each and every piece depends on its condition, i.e., state of preservation. Furthermore, some of these books are still standard works on their series, but the values given are quite out of date and have been for many years. There have been, therefore, 12 degrees of rarity set up and they are as follows:

- R7 Only one or two examples known
- R6 Three or four examples known
- R5 Five to ten examples known
- R4 Eleven to twenty examples known
- R3 Extremely rare
- R2 Very rare
- R Rare
- S Scarce
- N Normal, neither scarce nor common
- C Common
- C2 Very common
- C3 Extremely common

We think you will find this useful to know, especially when you are looking through reference books, or some of the English publications.
—Santa Barbara Coin Club Newsette



CALIFORNIA MISSION MEDALS

By Joseph M. Mirkovich, North Hollywood

The lyrical names of the California Missions never lose their fascination as the years roll on.

Adobe walls may crumble under the pounding winter rains . . . wooden beams may sag and crash to earthen floors in the blackness of the night . . . but the melody of early Spanish California remains.

Consulting the noted artist Maria Altobelli Abondolo, and the sculptor Cataldo Papaleo, a series of medals was planned to commemorate these California missions and their founder, the Franciscan padre, Junipero Serra. More than a year of extensive research and planning was undertaken before the first medal was struck by the Medallic Art Co. late in 1961.

The first bears a portrait of Fray Junipero. The obverse shows a map with mission locations noted.

In almost geographical succession came the medal for Mission San Juan Capistrano, featuring a view of the noted gardens and flights of swallows.

Mission San Luis Rey, for years known as "The King of Missions", was third in the series; depicting mission scenes and a bust of St. Louis IX of France.

The fourth medal honors Mission San Gabriel, with a view of the famed "bell wall" on obverse. The reverse depicts an Indian mural, for which the mission is noted.

Mission San Fernando (one of the best known of all), nestled in the northern part of the valley that bears its name, is fifth in the series. A facade of the mission's 19 arches and a view of the gardens may be seen on the obverse. The reverse is devoted to a bust of St. Ferdinand of Spain.

Soon to be issued will be a medal of Mission San Jose de Guadalupe, located on the eastern shores of San Francisco Bay. Besides a view of the mission, the ancient Mass bell, a rocker arranged series of chimes, will be shown.

In all, 22 medals will comprise the series; 21 devoted to the missions and one to their founder, Fray Junipero Serra. Production plans call for completion of the series in about two years, as it is believed that planning, execution of design and quality is far more important than mass circulation.

JOHN ADAMS DIX

By DWIGHT A. SAFFORD, San Diego, CSNA 422

Of the token money which circulated in the United States during the Civil War, the series of so-called patriotic tokens not only functioned as a medium of exchange, but perpetuated for all time the expressions of ideals, pleas of unity and love of country, with inscriptions engraved upon their surfaces. Some with simple slogans, such as "Union Forever," were terse and to the point, but there were others which today require some research into the past to understand their full meaning. One such is the series known as the "Dix" or "Shoot him on the spot" tokens. One side depicts the U.S. flag, encircled by thirteen stars and in the exergue, "the flag of our Union" and the date, 1863. The other side shows "Dix" in the center, encircled by "shoot him on the spot" and in the other exergue, "if anyone attempts to tear it down."

With the passing of an ordinance of secession in December of 1860 by the State of South Carolina, delegates from Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Texas, Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, North Carolina and Louisiana met with the delegates of South Carolina and established the Confederate States of America. The prelude to this confederation was the temperament and rebellious spirit evident in the south, evinced by the seizing of large amounts of government property by local authorities or rebel sympathizers.

One such incident was to be perpetuated by an order issued by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, John Adams Dix, who had given up his position of Postmaster of New York City to become the Secretary of the Treasury during the waning months of President Buchanan's administration. He had been previously offered the office of Secretary of War, but had declined the office. John Adams Dix was born July 24, 1798 at Boscawen, New Hampshire; his schooling was at Phillips Exeter Academy and College of Montreal. He entered the army at age 14, served in the War of 1812, and attained the rank of Captain, which rank he held at the time he retired from military service in 1828.

Returning to civilian life, he practiced law and served as land agent in Cooperstown, New York, holding various political posts in that state through the years: Adjutant General, 1830 to 1833; Secretary of State, 1833-1839; and Democratic Senator, 1845-1849.

Stationed at New Orleans, Louisiana, was the U.S. revenue cutter McClelland, among whose duties was the protection of the U.S. mint located there. Secretary Dix had sent a message to Captain Breshwood in command of the McClelland to secure his ship for the United States government. Captain Breshwood refused to do so, whereupon Secretary Dix sent the following message to the New Orleans Treasury Department, Jan. 29, 1861: "Tell Lt. Caldwell to arrest Capt. Breshwood, assuming command of the cutter and obey the order I gave through you. If Capt. Breshwood, after arrest, undertakes to interfere with the command of the cutter, tell Lt. Caldwell to consider him as a mutineer and treat him accordingly. If anyone attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot."

Although this order of Secretary Dix failed to save for the government the U.S. mint and other property and in no way deterred Louisiana's entry into the Confederate Union, his words of command: "If anyone attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot," caught the fancy of those supporting the Federal Union and became a popular slogan of the ensuing Civil War between the States, and of course to remain for all time etched upon the surface of necessity money to remind us that patriotism is still a need for maintaining this freedom of ours.

(Reprint from March 1968 issue of the San Diego Numismatic Society Bulletin.)



Norwalk Commemorative Medal

By HARRY M. LESSIN, South Norwalk, Conn.

Had our historical beginnings originated with peoples settling on the shores of the Pacific, then moving eastward, this narrative might very well relate to Norwalk, Calif., or it might commence with a Norwalk, Ohio, rather than Norwalk, Conn., where this magnificently executed medal has its setting. But whatever be the first claim to the distinction symbolized by the medal, the peoples of Norwalk, (Conn.,) have kinship with those of its sister cities in the other states, though later in time or origin and the more recent Norwalk, Calif.

Of the towns slated for destruction by the British during the American Revolution, Norwalk was among those plundered and burned, with untold suffering by its inhabitants. By way of compensating the "fire sufferers" for their losses Connecticut provided them with land in the Western Reserve of Ohio and, as the heaviest sufferer, Norwalk received land in 1792 which was settled in about 1820 when a small group of Norwalkers left by prairie schooner from the village green for new homes in the "Fire Lands." They founded what is now Norwalk, Ohio.

Many years later, with the coming of the railroad through the community, Norwalk (Calif.) was named. Whether the name was designated by

railroad men for convenience or on the suggestion by employees who had migrated from the Ohio city, this kinship, however remote or connected, is both in name and fact, and in Norwalk, Conn., it has long been considered by its citizenry that the great trek westward scattered its seed in Norwalk, Calif.

The obverse of the medal represents the purchase from the Indians of Norwalk by Roger Ludlow in 1640 (old style) of the land where the original settlement was made: "All the lands, meadows, pasturings, trees, whatsoever their is, and grounds between the twoe rivers, the one called Norwalke, the other Soakatuck, to the middle of sayed Rivers, from the sea a days walke into the country . . ." Mahackemo, identified in the deed as "Sachem," is represented as offering Ludlow the pipe of peace while the brave at his feet puts aside the tomahawk and bow, the instruments of war. (There never was any Indian trouble in the locality.) Ludlow holds in his hand the deed and a string of wampum, the latter symbolizing the purchase price which was: "eight fathom of wampum, ten sissors, tenn jewseharpes, tenn fathom Tobackoe, three kettles of six hands about, tenn looking glasses . . ."

"Norwalke" (the spelling used in the deed and followed on the medal's ob-

verse) is the English transliteration of the Indian word applied to the locality. The word is so poorly interpreted that its exact meaning is unknown. Trumbull in his *Indian Names . . . of Connecticut* guesses that it is the equivalent of Nayaug or Nyack, "a point of land."

On reverse of the medal the words "Three Hundredth Anniversary, Norwalk, Connecticut" around the outer edge and the dates 1651-1951 commemorate the occasion for the issuance of the medal: the act of the General Court of Connecticut in September 1651 establishing the town of Norwalk. The shield of the town depicted in the center bears the motto "E Pluribus Unum" (One from Many) to symbolize the fact that the town is composed of many separate small communities as the old Borough of Norwalk, City of South Norwalk, East Norwalk ("Downtown"), Rowaytown, Silvermine, Cranbury, and so on. The seal bears symbols representing the three oldest of these communities: the bridge representing Norwalk where a bridge was built early in the town's history across the "falls" of Norwalk River; the well representing South Norwalk which was known as the village of Old Well

in the eighteenth century from the famed well near the main wharf where sailors would get fresh water for their voyages; and the Ludlow monument representing East Norwalk in which the monument stands and which is built on a portion of the land purchased by Ludlow.

The medal was designed by Robert Wakeman, a sculptor whose family was long associated with Norwalk, and who formerly lived in Norwalk but later became a resident of North Haverhill, New Hampshire. One of his greatest interests was the town's history and he contributed his work to the Norwalk Historical Society which financed the medal.

Issued at \$2 there was a total striking of 1000 medals, 500 in bright bronze and 500 in dull or satin finish. It is 50 mm. in diameter; and was fully distributed except for a small quantity which the Society retained for exchanges with other historical groups and presentation at subsequent occasions of significance to the town.

The writer acknowledges credit to John R. Cuneo, president of the Norwalk (Conn.) Historical Society and to Dr. Curtis R. Paxman of Norwalk (Calif.)

HACIENDA TOKENS OF MEXICO

By WILLIAM O. HUTT, San Francisco

The hacienda tokens of Mexico appear to have taught the native Indians of Mexico the use of copper coins as money. To understand this we must look at the Spanish colonial coinage of Mexico.

The first mint in the new world

went into operation in 1536 in Mexico City. Silver and copper coins were authorized; copper coins of 1, 2 and 4 maravedis were to be struck. No 1 maravedi coin is known today, and the 2 maravedis is very rare.

An article in the May 1950 "Numismatist" by J. V. Scafe, Jr. entitled "Early Mints of the New World," referring to first copper coinage, says "Persistent and creditable legends insist that copper 2 and 4 maravedis were struck at this mint, but that the copper itself was of poor quality and was brittle, so that the coins could not stand the pressure of the hammer. Moreover, the Indians of Mechocan did not care for copper coins and threw them into Lake Texcoco. It is believed that 200,000 pesos worth of these copper coins found their way to the bottom of the lake, so it was naturally found expedient to cease the unpopular copper coinage about 1538." (Note: 34 maravedis equal 1 real; 272 maravedis equal 1 peso.)

The next issue of copper coins at the Mexico City mint was a 1/16 real of 1768. This was during the reign of Charles III (1760-1789), as King of Spain.

In August 1952, numismatist Dr. Ray Wilson in an article entitled "Coinage of Colonial Mexico", speaking of the period of Charles III in Mexico, says a "copper piece appeared exactly like the silver coins of that period but was a trial piece struck by an apprentice engraver to test his skill in engraving coins".

In the year 1814 the Spanish viceroy of Mexico ordered coining of 1/2, 1/4 and 1/8 real in copper. Regular issues of copper coins started with the date of 1814 at the Mexico City mint.

From the year 1538 until 1814 only one issue of copper coins was known to have been struck at the Mexico City mint, a 1/8 real struck in 1768. For a period of 276 years no other copper coins were struck at the Mexico City mint.

However hacienda tokens dated 1750 are known. Some numismatists believe that there were earlier undated hacienda tokens struck.

What is an hacienda? In Mexico large farms and ranches were called haciendas. These haciendas were self-supporting. They had water supplies for irrigation and live stock; timberland for lumber; stone, lime and adobe clay for building; fertile land for growing grain and produce; grazing

land for live stock. There was a store, a church and a post office. Some haciendas employed more than 2,000 Indians.

Due to the size and isolation of these haciendas a need arose for a medium of exchange. Coins were needed for use in the store and in the post office, and for the tithes for the church.

So the hacendados (that is, the owners of these haciendas) began to make their own money, usually of copper. These pieces are called hacienda tokens. A few of them have a mark of value. Most of them do not, as these tokens were for use on a single hacienda. Each hacienda had its own tokens. Therefore they come in many shapes and sizes, some with the owner's name on them, some with place names, some with initials, others with monograms, etc.

An odd-shaped token is in the form of a goat. On this token is the word "chivato", Spanish for small goat.

To add to the variety of these hacienda tokens, they often varied on a single hacienda. For example, the Alvares hacienda had at least five varieties of tokens between 1806 and 1850.

Hacienda tokens are known that were struck over older tokens and coins. Some have countermarks on them.

The widespread use of hacienda tokens in Mexico shows that the hacendados were able to make the Indians use copper as money. However the Spanish government, after an initial failure in 1538, did not try to strike copper coins again until the single issue of 1768, and did not resume a regular copper coinage until 1814.

Hacienda tokens were in use before 1750 and were in use in Mexico until their use was forbidden by law in 1917.

For further information on hacienda tokens I would suggest The American Numismatic Society's Numismatic Notes and Monographs No. 115 (1919) entitled Hacienda Tokens of Mexico by O. P. Eklund and Sydney P. Noe.

(Reprint from Volume V, Number 3, July 1965 issue of "The Medallion", official publication of the California Exonumist Society.)

A Russian Medal

By JAMES TODOROVIC, Berkeley

While checking the Russian coins and medals which once belonged to the late Grand Duke Georgii Mikhailovich¹, the writer noticed the bronze medal reproduced here.



The obverse bears the portrait of Tsar Alexander I and the year 1814. What was most intriguing was the inscription on the reverse. When translated, this reads as follows: "To the Ruler of the Sandwich Islands Tamaree as a token of his friendship to the Russians".

Why did the Russian Tsar have this medal struck for somebody named "Tamaree"? Why was this person addressed as the ruler of the Sandwich Islands when it is known that, at least from 1810 to his death on May 5, 1819, King Kamehameha I was ruler of the Sandwich (i.e. Hawaiian) Islands? Why would the Tsar of Russia bother with such matters as having a "friendship" medal struck for someone in the Hawaiian Islands while Russia was engaged in a war with Napoleon I and together with other European nations was concerned with driving Napoleon out of France and ultimately into the Atlantic Ocean?

* * *

In the latter part of the eighteenth century the Sandwich Islands were divided into four separate kingdoms. By the turn of the nineteenth cen-

tury, and more specifically, by 1810, King Kamehameha I became the actual ruler of all the Hawaiian Islands. He did, however, allow Kamehameha I to remain as feudal king of the island of Kauai, paying allegiance and tribute to Kamehameha I.

At about the same time, the Russian American Fur Co., which was chartered by the Tsar of Russia and which had a monopoly of the fur trade in Alaska, found it difficult to obtain food supplies. There were times when the Russian colonists in Alaska were on the verge of starvation, so that it was quite evident to Baranoff, the resident agent of the company and governor of the colony, that unless he could tap a better source of supplies than Siberia, the colony would have to be abandoned. Baranoff therefore hoped to establish trading posts both in California and the Hawaiian Islands. In fact, it is for this reason that in 1812 the Russians, in open defiance of the Spanish governor, established their fortified post, Fort Ross, on the coast of California north of San Francisco.

The immediate results of the agricultural experiments at Fort Ross were not sufficient to feed the hungry Alaskans, and Baranoff was

¹ *The Numismatist*, July 1957, page 790.

forced in January 1814 to send a ship to the Hawaiian Islands to acquire the necessary supplies. A cargo was secured at Oahu. However, as the ship sailed for its home port in Alaska, it sprang a leak and had to put into Waimea Bay, Kauai, where it was wrecked by a sudden storm. A large portion of the cargo was saved by King Kaumualii and his men, who, however, refused to turn it over to the ship's captain. The latter, upon his return to Sitka, urged Baranoff to send an expeditionary force against Kaumualii. Instead, Baranoff sent a Dr. Georg Anton Scheffer, who was a surgeon on one of the company's ships. It appears that the main object for Scheffer's trip to the Islands was to persuade King Kamehameha I either to return the cargo from the wrecked ship, or, if it were no longer available, to request payment for it in sandalwood. This would be loaded on two of the company's ships which were to follow Scheffer to the Islands. Scheffer also was instructed to try to arrange for permanent trade relations between the company and Hawaii.

Scheffer was very successful, at least with the first part of his mission. Both Kamehameha I and Kaumualii agreed to return the Russian cargo. The ease with which Scheffer gained his points probably went to his head. While on the island of Kauai, he induced Kaumualii to grant him a lease to the Hanalei valley (on Kauai), and also suggested that Kaumualii declare his independence from Kamehameha and, at the same time, place himself under the protection of the Russian Tsar.² Scheffer then erected a fort at Waimea, and raised the Russian flag thereon.

As soon as this came to the attention of Kamehameha, the latter sent a messenger to Kaumualii with orders to expel Scheffer. By this time Kaumualii was convinced (by the American and English traders) of the dangerous position into which he had placed himself. He, therefore, requested Scheffer and his men to leave Kauai. Seeing that everyone

was against him, Scheffer shipped his men to Sitka, while he himself fled to China.

In the meantime, immediately after his first success with Kamehameha and Kaumualii, Scheffer sent a report to the officials of the Russian American Fur Co. in St. Petersburg. In this report, Scheffer gave a glowing account of the possible riches. This dazzled the Russian officials to such a degree that they appealed to Tsar Alexander I to send troops to the Hawaiian Islands to occupy at least the islands of Kauai and Oahu which, according to them, were turned over to Russia by King Kaumualii. The Tsar, however, was not convinced that the handing over (even if true) was done willingly and voluntarily. He, therefore decided to have this matter investigated.³ In the meantime, he ordered that various presents be sent to Kaumualii, and that a medal be struck and delivered to him — this medal to be addressed to the "ruler of the Sandwich Islands."⁴ According to Dr. Frank A. Golder, late professor of history at Stanford University, "Tomaree" was one of King Kaumualii's names.⁵ It is for this reason that the medal was thus addressed to "Tamaree", as ruler of the Sandwich Islands, which latter title may have been a deliberate, but expedient, exaggeration.

* * *

The three questions which originally beset the author have thus been answered. The fact that Dr. Scheffer exceeded his authority when he tried (with apparent success) to induce Kaumualii (i.e., Tomaree) to break away from King Kamehameha should be conceded. The records show that Baranoff and the directors of the Russian American Fur Co., as well as the Russian government, all repudiated Scheffer's actions.⁶

However, at least one point still remains unanswered: Did Tomaree actually try to hand over the Hawaiian Islands to Russia, and thus be one of the early Quislings?

* * *

(Written for the East Bay Coin Club's
1957 Numismatic Article Contest)

² *Life of Baranoff* (St. Petersburg, 1835), pages 164-165.

³ Archives of the Russian Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1817, No. 350.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1844, No. 1501.

⁵ *"Hawaii — Early Relations With England, Russia and France"*, edited by A. P. Taylor and R. S. Kuykendall.

⁶ *"A History of Hawaii"* (1926), by Ralph S. Kuykendall, pages 94-96.

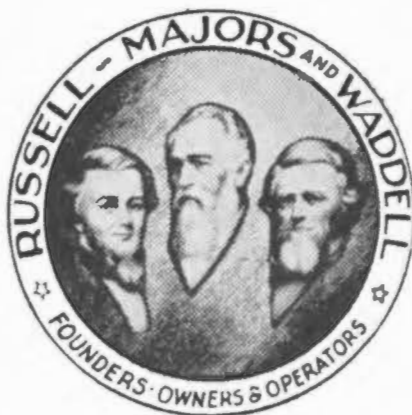
Pony Express Medal

The official U.S. Pony Express commemorative medal was released July 5, two weeks before the 9-day centennial re-run which began July 19, and which used 1000 horses and riders over the 1966-mile route of the Pony Express, both ways.

Congress authorized and the Philadelphia Mint prepared the medals. They were delivered only to the National Pony Express Centennial Association

The final design and sculpture were done by Mr. Gasparro of the art staff at the Philadelphia Mint.

Initial delivery of the bronze medal totaled 20,000. More have been requested by the Association from the director of the Mint. It may be purchased from the Association, 2998 Connor St., Salt Lake City 9, Utah, or from dealers, at the retail price, \$1.75.



and were placed on sale by the Association to defray expenses of the centennial re-run and the cost of erecting monuments and markers to preserve the location of the old trail.

The Association was established by the governors of the eight western states, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, Nevada and California, through which the Pony Express ran. The Association is a non-profit corporation whose only purpose is to sponsor the Centennial and to perpetuate the history of the Pony Express. Waddell F. Smith is president; Clarence A. Reeder Jr., secretary.

The medal is 1 5/16 inches in diameter (between a half dollar and a dollar in size), and is of bronze. The sculptured heads of William H. Russell, Alexander Majors and William B. Waddell, founders and operators of the historic Pony Express, appear on one side of the medal and on the other, the famous Hansen Pony Express Horse and Rider. Original design for the medal was done by Julian A. Links of San Francisco, Calif.

STRUCK ALSO IN SILVER

A special silver medal, same in size and design as the bronze medal, was struck, the number minted being limited to 5000. Although press releases from the Association stated that the silver medal would be placed on sale July 19, the editor and others, who had their orders in well ahead of that date, were told by mimeographed form letter, that the supply was exhausted. Checks were returned to some who had airmailed in their orders directly after the announcement was made that silver medals would be struck and would be sold on a first come, first served basis. Sold originally for \$6 each, the silver medals already are being sold by dealers at from \$8 up.

PONY EXPRESS RIDERS MEDAL

A bronze medal, 2 1/4 inches in diameter, in heavy relief and weighing just under four ounces, was manufactured by the U.S. Mint for the National Pony Express Centennial Association as authorized by a special Act of Congress. It was made for pre-

sentation to the just under 1000 riders who participated in the July 19-28 re-enactment of the Pony Express. None of these medals was sold, but approximately 30 were withheld for deposit in appropriate libraries, historical societies, and museums in the eight Pony Express states and Washington, D.C.

More than a year ago, when plans

were being made for the centennial re-enactment of the Pony Express, promises were made to the horsemen and many riding organizations that the participating riders not only would be presented a Bible as they were 100 years ago, but also would be given a beautiful and distinctive medal, according to Waddell F. Smith, Association president.

TRADE GOODS AND THE 'MADE BEAVER' TOKENS

By Chris Faulkner, Pointe Claire, Quebec

Most of us are familiar with the Hudson's Bay Company 'Made Beaver' tokens listed by Breton as numbers 926, 927, 928 and 929, but few have any conception of the trading value of the 'made beaver' in its period of circulation. Breton supposes these pieces to have been issued about 1857. However, Henry John Moberly in his book "When Fur Was King" makes a specific reference to the 'made beaver' as being the only common currency of the northwest country in the year 1854. We may perhaps suppose these pieces to have been issued some years earlier yet.

Moberly, whose book provides the greater part of the text of this article, was a factor of the Hudson's Bay Company and in retirement wrote a brief account of some of his adventures which took him all over the west and northwest from Fort Garry to Fort Churchill to Lake Athabasca to Barkerville. He was in the service of the Company from 1853 to 1894 and passed away in 1929 at the age of ninety-three.

One item above all others would influence the Indians to trap pelts and trade—rum. From the very early days of the Company "Blackfoot Milk" was considered necessary to secure pelts, even though it must inevitably debauch the entire Indian trade. It appears that knowing just how much one could dilute a gallon of rum with river water was a prime qualification for a fur trader. When a liquor trade was in progress the fort was closed tight and no Indian admitted within. Trade was carried on with the outside through small port holes. The liquor, Jamaica rum, being 33 percent over proof, went a long way when mixed liberally with the local fresh water. It was first mixed in the ratio of one part rum to seven of water and diluted more and more as the trade progressed until little was left but the smell.

For this mixture a stiff price was obtained in 'made beaver', the currency of the country—dollars and cents or shillings and pence were unheard of. A horse was worth about



HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY—1, 1/2, 1/4 and 1/8 'Made Beaver' tokens. (N.B. was mistake for M.B.) Sizes enlarged slightly. Photography by the late Dr. C. G. Curtis, Brea. Designed by G. S. McTavish, 1854.

twenty 'made beaver'; a good robe, two; a dressed hide, one; a parfleche (a dried buffalo hide with the fur removed) full of fine fat dried buffalo ribs and bosses weighing around forty pounds, one 'made beaver'; a wolf skin, one-half; red fox, one; cross fox, two; silver or black fox, five; five pieces of grease (each weighing over twenty pounds), one; a fat buffalo cow cut up and put on stage, one-half; eight buffalo tongues, one; one and a half feet of Canadian roll tobacco sold for 'one made' beaver; one-fifth of a pound of vermillion mixed with flour, for six; a bunch of seed beads or a scalping knife, one;

a small country made axe, two; a large axe, four; ten balls of ammunition or one-quarter pound of gunpowder for one 'made beaver'. The above comprised a list of the wants of the Indian. Supplies were often given on credit, but we could trust all our debtors—some good hunters to the extent of 800 'made beaver'—with practical certainty of receiving payment.

The 'made beaver' unit was the prime unit for exchange purposes in the development and exploitation of the fur trade.

Re-printed from *The Vancouver Numismatic Society News Bulletin*, January 1963.

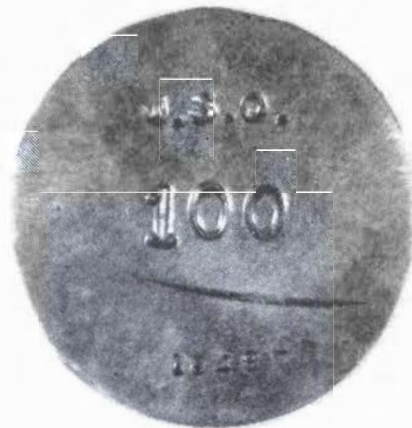
THE J. S. ORMSBY TOKEN

By MAURICE M. GOULD, Chestnut Hill, Mass.

A most unusual token, which appeared recently in the New England area, should be of special interest to California collectors. This token has the highest value of any I ever have seen or described in any catalog. The obverse reads "100 Dolls", with

12 slightly irregular stars bordering the edge. The reverse legend is "J. S. O. 100/1849 -". Size of the token is 42 mm.

This item has been shown to some of the top collectors and dealers in the country, and just about everyone



has gone along with my original theory that it was given as a receipt for \$100 worth of gold dust until such time as coins could be minted for the owner of the token.

J. S. Ormsby & Co. of Sacramento, Calif., operated both an assay office and mint. The firm was composed of some prominent Californians, Dr. Ormsby being a member of the California legislature. This firm issued \$5 and \$10 denomination territorial gold pieces, both extremely rare.

The \$100 token was acquired recently when a purchase of an accumulation of gold was made from a re-

tired Massachusetts banker, who mentioned that he had had the piece for a number of years. He did not have any knowledge as to its source or background.

It is hoped with this article that collectors in the California area, many of whom are interested in both territorial gold and unusual tokens, will be able to shed more light on this interesting and possibly fabulous item.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Referring to the last paragraph of Mr. Gould's article, if anyone has any information on this token, please write me. It is possible that we may be able to publish at a later time a "follow-up" article on this most interesting item of our California history.

Erie Canal So-Called Dollar

By MAURICE M. GOULD, Chestnut Hill, Mass.

An extremely rare so-called dollar recently has come to light—the Erie Canal piece of 1826.

As a result of the failure of the federal government to help the Erie Canal project, supporters of the project proposed that the State of New York finance the canal. The canal issue was one of the most important in the gubernatorial contest of 1817. DeWitt Clinton campaigned as a pro-canal candidate. Following his victory at the polls and his inauguration, work on the canal began at Rome, N. Y.

The project was completed in 1825 and on Oct. 26 of that year the barge *Seneca Chief* set out from Buffalo to New York City. When it arrived Nov. 4, there was an elaborate celebration, the climax of which was the dumping of a barrel of Lake Erie water into the Atlantic Ocean.

The completion of the Erie Canal inaugurated a new era in the growth of New York City, Buffalo, and other communities.

To my knowledge, only two of the Erie Canal dollars had come to light until the discovery of this new piece



in silver by Frank Washburn and Maurice M. Gould. This medal came in a small wooden box which says THIS BOX/was made out of a piece/ of wood, brought from Erie /in the first Canal Boat /THE SENECA CHIEF. In the other cover, it says, PRESENTED BY THE CITY OF NEW YORK [to Thomas Franklin] and shows an eagle on a globe. The medal is silver with a small hole at top. The obverse shows eagle on a globe with a small sailing ship at right and ERIE CANAL COMM. 4 JULY 1817, COMP 26 OCT 1825. At the bottom is the date, 1826, and PRESENTED BY THE CITY OF NEW YORK. Reverse legend is UNION OF ERIE WITH THE ATLANTIC. Two mythological characters, Pan and Neptune, are shown seated. Diameter is 44 mm.

This medal is in slightly used condition, even though it has been in the original box.

The other two specimens known are in a white metal composition. This would be the first known to have been found in silver, and prob-

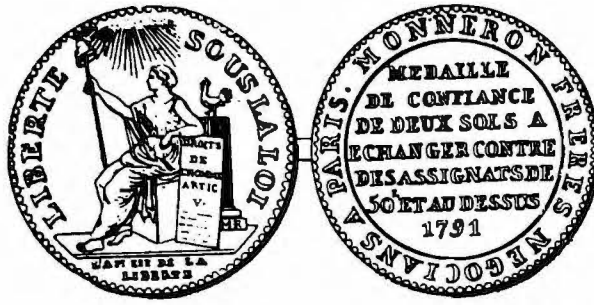
ably is a presentation piece given to some celebrity.

It is hoped that, with all of the interest in So-Called Dollars at the present time, many other unusual items will come to light.

BAR-KOKHBA COINS

The Israel Numismatic Society is preparing the publication of the sixth volume of the Corpus Nummorum Palaestinensium: "The Coins of the Bar-Kokhba War" which is written by Dr. L. Mildenberg of Zurich and Leo Kadman of Tel-Aviv.

As with the previous five volumes of the Corpus, we wish to include also in the coming one the greatest possible number of existing specimens of the various types. Therefore, we would be grateful if curators of museums, as well as private collectors, who have coins of the Bar-Kokhba War (Second Revolt) in their possession, would kindly inform us about it. — The Israel Numismatic Society, Tel-Aviv, Israel, P.O.B. 392.



FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY TOKEN COINAGE, 1789-1794

By RUSSELL RULAU, Sidney, Ohio

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE PERIOD

The excesses of the French royalty had so impoverished France that by 1788 Louis XVI was reduced to the desperate expedient of calling for the convening of the States-General, the feudal assembly which supposedly represented the nation. The three Estates composed the Clergy, Nobility and Commoners, in that order, each having 300 representatives. It had not met in almost two centuries.

The States-General met in May 1789 after the Third Estate (Tiers Etat), the Commoners, had been increased to 600 delegates. Five weeks of delay followed in which the First and Second Estates refused to sit with them but demanded the age-old privilege of separate assemblies and separate votes.

On June 17, 1789, the Third Estate declared itself the "National Assembly" and invited the other Estates to sit with it. Honore Riquetti de Mirabeau quickly became the leader of the assembly. Other notable members were the king's cousin, Philip, Duc d'Orleans, now styling himself Philippe Egalite (Equality); De Noailles; Abbe Sieyes; Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Perigord; and the Marquis de Condorcet.

The French Revolution had begun in a legislative manner, but quickly the frantic Paris mobs turned reason and order into fury against the old order. The Fall of the Bastille Prison, July 14, 1789, signalled the end of the old order and the beginning of mob rule.

Passing swiftly through a period of constitutional monarchy, France declared itself a republic, Sept. 21, 1792, which commenced Year I of

Liberty (L'An I de la Liberte). Not long afterward, Louis XVI was tried as a commoner, "Louis Capet" and beheaded, Jan. 21, 1793.

The early days of the Republic soon merged into the Reign of Terror with the appointment of the Committee of Public Safety, 12 members of the Assembly, and its guillotining arm, the Revolutionary Tribunal. A sadistic monster, Antoine Quentin Fouquier-Tinville, presided over the Tribunal, impartially condemning to death Royalists, moderates and even extremists until after the fall of Robespierre. Fouquier himself was guillotined May 7, 1795.

The leaders of the Third Estate had mainly disappeared by the beginning of the Reign of Terror. Three new factions arose among the republicans—Girondists, or moderates; the Plaine, seeking a middle ground between the two extreme factions; and the Jacobins or Montagnards.

The strongest leaders of the Girondists were Jean Pierre Brissot, Madame Jeanne Roland and the deputies from Gironde Department, Vergniaud, Gaudet and Gensonne. Their fiercest opponents, the Jacobins, proscribed the entire party in June 1793 and all their leaders were guillotined.

Madame Roland's husband, Jean Marie Roland de la Platiere, committed suicide, as did Condorcet later. The guillotine claimed many other victims, including the famed chemist Lavoisier, Andre Chenier, Queen Marie Antoinette, Bailly and "Philip Equality."

The Jacobins, having rid themselves of monarchists, early Republican leaders and Girondists, now were in

full power. Their leaders were Georges Jacques Danton, who controlled the moderate faction of these extremists; Jean Paul Marat, editor of a ferocious revolutionary newspaper and the real leader of the mob; Maximilien Marie Isidore Robespierre, head of the Committee of Public Safety; and Jacques Rene Hebert, leader of the Paris Commune.

After the execution of the Girondist leader Brissot, young Charlotte Corday stabbed Marat to death in his bath, July 13, 1793, and shortly afterward went to "Madame Guillotine."

Robespierre now determined to rid himself of the factions of Danton and Hebert and make himself master of France. Aided by his creatures Saint-Just, Couthon and Fouquier-Tinville, he sent Hebert to the guillotine, March 24, 1794. Danton and Camille Desmoulins followed, April 5, 1794.

Robespierre now was Dictator of France, but a reaction had set in in the Assembly. The dictator himself was arrested and guillotined by the assembly with 30 of his followers, including Saint-Just and Couthon on July 28, 1794. Thus ended the Reign of Terror. Jacobins like Tallien, Barras, Carnot, Fouche, Petion, Billaud-Varennes and Collot d'Herbois had decided France had had its fill of gore.

TOKENS OF THE REVOLUTION

Not well known to American collectors is the small group of private coins uttered in this momentous period of French history. Like all



other socio-political upheavals, it was attended by fiscal insanity and a general scarcity of circulating small change. Private tokens of good copper and silver seemed preferable to the vast quantities of paper "assignats" issued by the government, and a number of private parties issued token coinage at this juncture.

Monneron Brothers of Paris issued the largest number of these. The Monneron tokens were engraved by Augustin Dupre and struck by the famed British token-maker, Matthew Boulton of Birmingham, in 1791-1792.

In the catalogue which follows, we have followed closely the arrangement by P. Ciani, the standard authority on this series. Thus we have not included the 1792 issues of Michael Brezin of Paris (13 types) or of Brun (1 type) which seem to be more in the nature of essays for coins. By excluding Brezin, we probably will raise a few eyebrows among experts in this series, but it has ever been our practice to ignore convention in numismatics in favor of reason.

We make no claim to completeness in the area covered and welcome comments or additions by readers.

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CATALOGUE OF FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY TOKENS MONNERON FRERES OF PARIS

(C. numbers are those assigned by Ciani. See Bibliography.)

Date	Denomination	Metal	Description
1791	5 Sols	Copper	France, seated on a pedestal, presenting to the Revolutionaries the French Constitution on a tablet. Reverse: Inscription. Date 1791 at 6 o'clock. Edge reads: DEPARTEMENTS. DE. PARIS. DE. RHONE. DE. LOIRE. ET. DU. GARD. (C 147)

1791	5 Sols	Copper	Same, but date 1791 at 10 o'clock. (C 148)
1791	2 Sols	Copper	Liberty seated left, holding a pole surmounted by Liberty cap. Rev: Inscription. Edge reads: BON POUR BORD MARSEIL. LYON ROUEN. NANT ET STRASB. (C 149)
1792	5 Sols	Brass	Similar. On reverse a period after 50L. On edge, two periods after ROUEN. (C 150)
1791	2 Sols	Silver	As last. (C 151)
1791	2 Sols	Copper	As last, but # replaces L after 50. (C 152)
1791	2 Sols	Copper	As Ciani 149, but initials M.R. added on base of column, and 4 illegible lines of inscription added to tablet. Edge reads: BON POUR PARIS BORDEAUX MARSEIL LYON. NANT ET STRASB. (C 153) (A very rare essay)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	Type of Ciani 147. Edge reads: DEPARTEMENTS DE PARIS. RHONE ET LOIRE. DU GARD. +c (C 255)
1792	5 Sols	Brass	As last. (C 256)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	As last, but edge reads: DEPARTEMENTS. DE. PARIS. DE. RHONE. DE LOIRE. ET. DU. GARD. (C 257)
1792	5 Sols	Silver	As last. (C 258)
(Above four tokens dated 1792 also read L' AN III. Next seven read 1792 and L' AN IV.)			
1792	5 Sols	Copper	Similar to Ciani 257. (Varieties) (C 259)
1792	5 Sols	Brass	As last. (Varieties) (C 260)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	Obverse as Ciani 259. Rev: REVOLUTION FRANCAISE replacing MONNERON FRERES (etc.). Edge reads: BON. POUR. LES. 83. DEPARTEMENTS (C 264)
1792	5 Sols	Brass	As last. (C 265)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	As last, but edge reads: DEPARTEMENTS. (C 266)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	Similar, but CINQ-SOLS replacing 5-SOLS. Edge reads: LA. CONFIANCE. AUGMENTE. LA. VALEUR. (C 267)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	As last. Edge reads: DEPARTEMENTS DE PARIS. RHONE ET LOIRE. DU GARD. C. (C 268)
1792	5 Sols	Copper	Seated Hercules bending a fascis. Rev: similar to last. Edge as Ciani 267. (C 269-270; 2 vars.)
1792	5 Sols	Silver	As last. (C 271)
1792	5 Sols	Brass	As last. (C 272)
1792	2 Sols	Copper	Type of Ciani 149 but L'AN IV. Rev: Type of Ciani 267 but DEUX-SOLS. Edge as Ciani 267. (C 273)
1792	2 Sols	Copper	Same type, larger lettering. (C 275)
1792	2 Sols	Silver	As last. (C 274)
1792	2 Sols	Copper	Similar, word PATENTE without parentheses. (C 276)
1792	1 Sol	Copper	Type of Ciani 269-270. Rev: As last, but UN-SOL. (C 277)

CAISSE DE BONNE FOI OF PARIS

(Caisse de Bonne Foi, also spelled Foy on some of the tokens, means literally "Counting House of Good Faith".)

1791	3 Sols	Copper	Infant Genius standing atop a swan and a snake, holding pole surmounted by Liberty cap and banner. Rev: Two hands holding a sceptre surmounted by Liberty bonnet. By Jean-Louis Thevenon. (C 154)
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1791	3 Sols	Silver	As last. (C 155)
1791	2 Sols	Copper	Helmeted and cuirassed Minerva bust left.
	6 Deniers		Rev: Two hands holding two sceptres sur-
	(6 Blancs)		mounted by a single Liberty bonnet. By
			Montagny. (C 156)
1791	2 Sols	Copper	As last, but NGE of ECHANGE in small
	6 Deniers		letters. (C 157)
	(6 Blancs)		

CLEMANSON ET CIE. OF LYON

1792	2 Sols	Copper	Fascis surmounted by cupola-shaped Lib-
			erty cap. Rev: Inscription. (C 233)
1792	2 Sols	Copper	Fascis surmounted by Liberty cap, flags,
			cannon and drums. Rev: as last. (C 234)
1792	2 Sols	Yellow Copper	As last. (C 235)

DAIROLANT ET COMP.

1792	10 Sols		Bust of Mirabeau right. Rev: Inscription.
			By Lorthior. (C 236)

LE CLECH ET COMPIE. OF CLERMONT

1792	10 Sols	Silver	Inscription. Rev: Inscription. (C 237)
L'AN 4	10 Sols	Silver	Obverse similar. Rev: X SOLX/X SOLS in
(1792)			center, LE CLECH ET COMPIE CLER-
			MONT DEPT DE L'OISE. (C 238)

LEFEVRE LE SAGE ET COMPIE. OF PARIS

1792	20 Sols	Silver	Liberty seated between 2 columns, a cock
			atop one, a Liberty cap atop the other.
			Rev: Inscription. (C 239-244; 6 vars.)
1792	5 Sols	Silver	Crossed cornucopiae beneath Liberty cap.
			Rev: Inscription. (C 245-247; 3 vars.)

V. GIVRY

Undt (ca 1791)	5 Sols	Copper	Large Fleur-de-Lis, V. GIVRY PASSAGE
			DU PERON No. 93. Rev: 5. SOLS/
			AECHANGER / CONTRE DES / ASSIGN-
			ATS (C 158)

BOYERE OF PARIS

1792	1 Sol 6 Deniers	Billon	Crossed fasces in front of pole surmounted
			by Liberty cap. Rev: Inscription. (C 226)

CAISSE METALIQUE OF PARIS (Boyere)

1792	18 Deniers	Billon	Crossed fasces in front of pole surmounted
			by Liberty cap. Rev: Inscription. (C 227)
1792	18 Deniers	Yellow Copper	As last. (C 228)
1792	18 Deniers	Billon	Crossed saber and branch in front of pole
			surmounted by Liberty cap. Rev: As last.
			(C 229)
1792	18 Deniers	Silver	As last. (C 230)
L'AN 4	(18 Deniers)	Billon	Mule of obverse of 227 and 229. (C 231)
(1792)			

CAISSE POPULAIRE OF PARIS (Boyere)

1792	18 Deniers	Silver	Similar to Ciani 227 but CAISSE POPU-
			LAIRE for CAISSE METALLIQUE. (C 232)

POTTER OF PARIS (name not on all tokens)

1792	20 Sols	Silver	A LA / MANUFACTURE / DE / PORCE-
			LAINÉ / RUE / DE CRUSSOL / A PARIS/
			1792 Rev: Inscription. (C 248)
1972	20 Sols	Silver	Same, but error "1972". (C 249)

1792	10 Sols	Silver	A LA / MANUFACTURE / DE / PORCELAINE / RUE / DE CRUSSOL / POTTER / 1792 Rev: B. P./10 SOLS/PAYABLE/EN/ASSIGNATS/DE 50# (C 251)
1792	10 Sols	Silver	Obverse similar. Rev: 10 SOLS/BON POUR /PAYABLE / AVUE EN/ASSIGNATS/DE 50# (C 250)
1792	7 Sols	Silver	Similar to Ciani 251. (C 252)
1792	5 Sols	Silver	Similar. (C 253)
1792	5 Sols	Silver	A LA MANUFACTURE DE PORCELAINE / RUE / DE/CRUSSOL/A PARIS/ 1792 Rev: B. P./5 SOLS/AECHANGER/ EN/ASSIGNATS/DE 50# (C 254)

P. F. FONTENILLIAT (Issues circa 1794-95)

Undt	10 Centimes	Copper	FABRIQUE DU VAST / 10 / CENT. / P. F. FONTENILLIAT Rev: Blank. (C 442)
Undt	5 Centimes	Copper	Similar but 5/CENT. (C 443)

PALO SECO TOKENS

By HARVEY L. ROSE, La Mesa

The Palo Seco Leper Colony was established in 1907. In 1948 the name was changed to Palo Seco Leprosarium, and since 1964 it has been known simply as Palo Seco Hospital. The hospital is located in Balboa, Canal Zone, and today has about one hundred patients.

The first need for a special currency arose during a reorganization of the Palo Seco Colony in 1919, when the use of chaulmoogra oil was introduced in the treatment of leprosy. Because it was necessary for patients to handle money, it was decided to issue a special currency good only at Palo Seco, the reasons being: (a) the idea that money handled by leprosy patients was repugnant and the belief that the disease might easily be transmitted in this manner; (b) the fact that patients having regular money could buy rum and other prohibited articles from bootleggers or by other illegal means; and (c) the belief that the inability of patients to accumulate money usable outside of the institution would be a deterrent to those wishing to escape.

The tokens were made in the same sizes as United States coins. The dollar, 50-cent, 25-cent and 10-cent pieces were aluminum with a round hole in the center, while the 5-cent

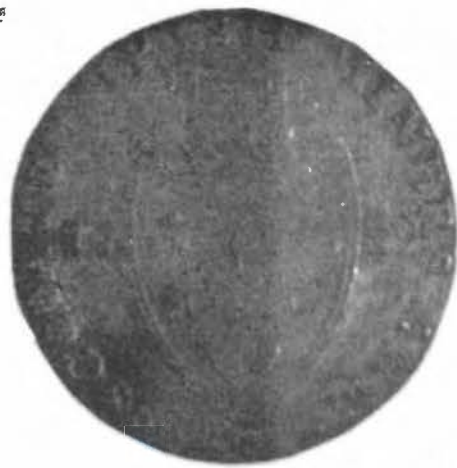
and 1-cent pieces were brass with a square hole.

Outstanding Palo Seco currency was covered by deposit of actual United States currency in the custody of the Superintendent. The tokens were used in the colony from 1919 until 1952, when they were withdrawn from circulation and replaced with United States silver coins. It is now recognized that leprosy is very mildly contagious, leaving little likelihood of contagion through handling coins. There has been great improvement in the condition of patients since the introduction of sulfones in treatment, and silver money is thought to be in itself "self-sterilizing".

The original issue of these tokens was in the amount of \$1,800, of which \$1,492.75 was destroyed on Nov. 28, 1955. This leaves approximately \$300 worth of Palo Seco tokens in the hands of collectors and visitors who carried them away as souvenirs, or lost during normal usage.

I am indebted to Mr. J. R. Thomson, Administrative Officer, and Mr. Ezra Hurwitz, Superintendent, of the Palo Seco Hospital for providing information on these interesting tokens.

(Reprinted from the September 1965 issue of "Intercoin", official publication of International Numismatic Society of San Diego.)



Irish Token Coinage

By RUSSELL RULAU, San Diego

"Shew Me a penny. Whose image and superscription hath it? They answered and said, Caesar's. And He said unto them, render therefore unto Caesar the things which be Caesar's, and unto God the things which be God's."—LUKE 20:24-25.

(Alluded to near the bust of George III on an Irish penny-token of 1818. It is evident here that the token-maker compares George III to Caesar and the Irish to the children of God. In a roundabout way, he is saying "Let my people go!")

Introduction

Well-known to American collectors are the various Irish issues rejected in Ireland itself and sent to the American Colonies for use as small change. Noteworthy among these are the St. Patrick halfpenny and farthing tokens, which were made in Dublin in 1678 and brought to New Jersey by Mark Newby in 1681. The New Jersey general assembly declared them legal tender in May 1682.

The issues of William Wood in 1722-24 for Hibernia, or Ireland, also circulated here widely as fiat currency, but were never wholeheartedly accepted by the people themselves. Somewhat later, the issues of Roche of Dublin, known as the Voce Populi-Hibernia tokens of 1760, found a degree of circulation in the Colonies.

Not nearly so well known in the United States are the large numbers of Irish tokens which never found a circulation outside Ireland itself. It is with a few of the more intriguing of these tokens that we shall deal in this introduction to a virtually untapped field for the American numismatist.

Seventeenth Century Tokens

Charles I, King of England, was beheaded by his enemies Jan. 30, 1649, after losing the English Civil War to Cromwell's Puritans and their allies. Almost immediately tradesmen and even local governments usurped the royal prerogative of coinage by issuing copper, brass and lead tokens of small denomination. Since there was no authority whatever for this coinage, the issues are considered tokens and are similar in purpose to our own merchant cards.

Oliver Cromwell issued no copper coinage at all, nor did his successor, Charles II, until 1672 (in England). By royal decree which announced the resumption of regal coinage, the use of tokens was suppressed in 1672. Thus for almost 24 years the "people's currency" held forth in the British Isles.

In Ireland, pennies, halfpennies and farthings were issued. The inscriptions on these pieces usually consist

of the Christian and surname of the issuer, his trade or occupation, and the town in which he resided. A device, the value, and initials of the tradesman (and sometimes his wife also) are other common features. The devices often indicate the issuer's handicraft or trade, the arms of his trade guild or his family arms. Sometimes a pun on his name may be alluded to. Issues of Irish towns may often contain the town arms or the Irish harp.

Many of these tokens are dated, which makes their value to the historically-minded collector much higher.

These tokens were unhesitatingly accepted and were "current everywhere," as one states. Merchants accepting the tokens of other merchants would keep boxes in which they could sort those of certain issuers and eventually redeem them for regal silver.

These pieces were not generally discounted in exchange, but in the larger cities some "farthing-changers" functioned at a very low ratio of profit. For the most part, they circulated at face value and became a boon to the poverty-stricken Irish peasantry. (Some authorities question whether the token-issuance was actually a boon to commerce, claiming it was inflationary in character, and that the immediate gains to trade were offset by the longer-range drop in value of sterling.)

An attempt to shake off the English yoke had begun in Ireland in 1641, the Irish taking advantage of the troubles between Charles I and his Parliament. In 1649 Cromwell was appointed Lieutenant and cruelly reduced the entire country within nine months. Many atrocities were perpetrated by both sides during this contest. After the defeat of the Irish and their Cavalier (Loyalist) allies, these were in large part banished to Connaught, the western portion of Ireland. The lands vacated by the vanquished were settled by English and Scottish immigrants.

Due to the civil strife, Ireland was somewhat slower than England in commencing the token coinage, the City of Cork issues appearing 1656-1659, but the stubborn Irish did not cease their coinage immediately upon the royal ban in 1672. A Limerick butcher's halfpenny appeared in 1679. A separate regal coinage for Ireland did not appear until 1680.

The description following of the penny of Henry Coker of Drogheda will illustrate graphically the general type:

Obv: HEN COKER OF DROGHEDAES/IERLAND/(a harp)/1660

Rev: FOR NECESSARY CHANGE A/PENY/TOK'

In fine condition, most of the commoner varieties may be purchased for 90 cents to 3 dollars each, but there are many extreme rarities.

Eighteenth Century — Early Period Tokens

When their English masters tried to force William Wood's Hibernia tokens upon them in 1722-24, the Irish refused to accept them and they were shipped to America to find use in the Colonies. Once more the rebellious sons of Erin resorted to tokens to take up the slack in the regal coinage.

In this period, 1728-36, the use of tokens was not widespread as it had been 50 years earlier, but was confined to the County of Dublin and to the Ulster Counties of the north. James Maculla of Dublin issued pennies and halfpennies dated 1728-31 in copper, and Ben Bower of the same city issued a rare silver threepence in the same period. All these tokens are quite rare, ranging in price from \$3.50 for a fine Maculla halfpenny to \$20 for a fine Bower threepence.

The Ulster counties of Antrim, Armagh, Down, Londonderry and Tyrone issued an assortment of threepence, twopence, pennies and halfpennies in silver, copper and brass in 1734-36. The regular Irish coinage of George II recommenced in 1736 and made these tokens unnecessary, but John McCully of Newtownards in Down issued a twopence in 1761.

The price range of the Ulster issues is about the same as the Dublin issues; all are very scarce as these were limited issues.

Unlike the seventeenth century tokens, there was no parallel issue of tokens in England at this time. These tokens are purely Irish in character, although mainly issued by the newer settlers who had been "planted" by James I and his successors, and who had taken over much of the commerce of Ulster and Leinster.

Eighteenth Century — Late Period Tokens

The French Revolution had a great effect on the minds of the Irish people, and under this influence the So-

ciety of United Irishmen was formed. Open rebellion broke out in 1798. On both sides, great atrocities were committed, but the rising was mercilessly crushed. The French, then at war with England, had landed a force of 1500 men at Killala Bay, but this force was compelled to surrender. Subsequently the Irish and English Parliaments were united, and the two countries were legislatively united on Jan. 1, 1801.

Regal copper coinage for Ireland had again ceased by 1783 and forgeries of regal issues became common. The exasperated Irish tradesmen again took matters in their own hands and from 1789 to 1800 issued a great quantity of private tokens.

The Industrial Revolution had revolutionized coinage by this time though, and the tokens of this period are extremely well made. Matthew Boulton's steam-driven coining presses in Birmingham, England, were in full operation by 1786 and this method was producing tokens for use in Ireland three years later.

Quoting from C. W. Peck, writing in Seaby's 1949 "Copper Catalogue," we find: "The full consequence of the dearth of copper coins on the everyday life of the people is difficult to appreciate today unless it is realized that, in addition to its scarcity, much of the copper was worn thin beyond recognition and at least 60% was counterfeit. The tokens, in spite of being illegal, at once became extremely popular and even accepted, locally, as a regular medium of exchange. It is important to stress that most of these tokens were of good weight and material, equal at least to that of the genuine regal coins."

In Ireland the tokens found extensive circulation in the counties of Dublin, King's (now Offaly), Wexford and Wicklow. All these are in Leinster, the western portion of Ireland bordering on the Irish Sea.

At Cronebane in Wicklow, the Associated Irish Mine Company issued a beautiful series of halfpennies featuring a mitred bishop's bust. These were dated 1789-96.

R. Woodcock's Bank in Enniscorthy (Wexford) issued several interesting halfpennies in 1800. A scarce copper "thirteenpence" (one shilling and one penny) was issued by Charleville Forest at Tullamore in King's County.

All the other tokens which stated their place of issue were Dublin issues, although some of these were payable in other cities than Dublin.

For example, one anonymous halfpenny reads: Payable in Dublin, Newry or Belfast; and one of Camac, Kyan and Camac reads: Payable in Dublin, Cork or Derry.

The anonymous issues which named no merchant found a degree of circulation throughout Ireland, but not to the extent of the seventeenth century tokens. These later pieces were essentially British-produced and used by British-oriented Irishmen in the commercial centers of the north, west and south. Most are halfpennies, with a few farthings.

The issues of Camac, Kyan and Camac of Dublin are extensive in 1792-99, the usual type being a seated female holding a harp. Some interesting reverses show William Shakespeare, the Prince of Wales, and John of Gaunt. The normal reverse contains H. M. CO. in a monogram.

In very fine condition, these late 18th century tokens are common, and may be purchased for as little as 30 cents each in large lots. There are some scarce and rare, however, and the purchase of single specimens of the common variety would naturally cost more.

Nineteenth Century — Early Period Tokens

The issue of regal copper coinage was sporadic at best in early 19th century Ireland, and the issuance of tokens never had ceased completely there as it had in 1800-11 in England.

The advent of heavy industry in the Napoleonic period and its consequent demands for small change caused the Irish for a fourth time in one and one-half centuries to resort to heavily increased token issues beginning in 1811. This period lasted until 1822, although in England most issues had ceased by 1817.

Unlike the late 18th century tokens, there were as many pennies as halfpennies issued, and no farthings. The rise in price of copper to 200 pounds sterling per ton by 1808 (then about \$970) had made the minting of farthings unprofitable.

Dublin again dominated the issues of the tradesmen, although a number of anonymous pieces found general circulation throughout the island.

Outside Dublin, tokens were issued in Galway, King's, Londonderry, Louth and Tyrone counties. The Charleville Forest at Tullamore (King's) reissued its 18th century thirteenpence in copper with a new date, 1802. In

Dublin, Edward Bewley, J. Hilles, The Pawnbrokers Office, Neville & Co., Edward Stephens, and others, dominated the merchants' issues.

A large number of patriotic varieties with no advertising were issued from 1800 to 1822. Popular heroes dominate the obverses, with such men as the Duke of Wellington, St. Patrick, Edward Burke, Daniel O'Connell, etc., sharing honors with George III. One states: Wellington and Erin Go Bragh.

Most of these copper tokens are more scarce than those of the preceding period with prices of the more common specimens ranging from 70 cents to 7 dollars each in fine condition.

Nineteenth Century — Middle Period Tokens

Beginning about 1834, a number of merchants in the larger cities began issuing store cards, largely as brass farthings, for use in trade. The depressed times of the 1830s were as keenly felt in Ireland as the Hard Times Era in America at this same juncture. Then too, the Great Potato Famine of the 1840s caused, according to some authorities, one million deaths and one and one-half million more emigrations by 1860.

The last regal coinage for Ireland came in 1823 and thereafter English coppers were used. These latter were adequate for trade purposes and were issued every year, although none were emitted in 1838-40.

this respect resembles closely the American store cards of the same era.

A few pieces noted by the author are the George Ords halfpenny of 1834, the J. C. & Co. farthing of Cork 1841, and the Talty Murphy Co. farthing of Dublin. All these pieces are uniformly uncommon, but are not particularly expensive when they can be located.

Conclusion

In this brief resume of a vast subject spanning two centuries, we hope we may have opened the field of Irish tokens to our fellow collectors. Anyone requiring detailed information on any aspect of this series would do well to consult one of the references cited below:

- J. Atkins, "The Tradesmen's Tokens of the Eighteenth Century," 1892.
- W. Boyne (edited by G. C. Williamson), "Trade Tokens Issued in the Seventeenth Century," 1887-91.
- Dalton & Hamer, "Provincial Token-Coinage of the Eighteenth Century," 1910-18 (3 vols.).
- W. J. Davis, "The Nineteenth Century Token Coinage," 1904.
- H. A. Seaby, "British Copper Coins and Their Values" (Part II — Tokens), 1961.
- Peter Seaby, "A Guide to the Token Coinage of the 17th Century" (Seaby's Coin and Medal Bulletin, now appearing serially). When reprinted in book form, this should be the new standard on this subject.
- A. W. Waters, "Notes of Eighteenth



These tokens, in use until about 1860, were not then purely substitutes for a regal coinage, but were rather a supplement to it, and their issuance was dictated by the needs of advertising as well as a local medium of exchange.

This series is not nearly as well catalogued as its predecessors, and in

Century Tokens."

- W. Woollett, "Tradesmen's Tokens of the Medway Towns 1650 - 72" (Numismatist, Oct. 1951). While this delightful article deals with purely English tokens, the background data would assist any collector to understand the peculiarities of the series.

ANNEX I

Some Typical 17th Century Issues Merchants

Andrews, William (Lisburn)
Bayly, Joseph (Arklow)
Bennet, Christopher (Dublin)
Browne, Valentine (Roscommon)
Cantwell, Michael (Birr)
Christian, Abm. 1670 (Galway)
Coker, Hen. 1660 (Drogheda)
Conner, Thomas (Ballymore)
Des Meyniers, Lewis (Dublin)
Dobbins, Humphrey 1670 (Belfast)
Fowkes, Hugh (Drogheda)
Gill, Thomas (Mullingar)
Hall, Edward (Dromore)
Helond, Patrick (Trim)
Hill, William 1663 (Athlone)
Hulme, William (Dublin)
Hunter, Wil (Sligo)
Jones, Thomas (Waxford)
Lawndey, Edward (Youghall)
Poole, Thomas (Kilkenny)
Prince, Robart 1664 (Cashell)
Quigley, Garrett (Carlow)
Reid, James 1663 (Enniskillen)
Wilson, Mic 1672 (Dublin)
Yeomans, Edmon 1669 (Cork)

Cities

Cork 1656-59
Kinsale 1672
Limerick 1658-79
Waterford 1659

ANNEX II

Some Typical Early 18th Century Issues

All Merchants

Adair, Jas. (Ballymena)
Beith, Alex. 1735 (Belfast)
Bower, Ben (Dublin)
Brown, Patrick (Breby)
Cockran, Jno. 1736 (Gilford)
Fisher, Thomas (Newtownards)
Galloway, John 1735 (Portaferry)
Greer, Jams. 1736 (Lurgan)
Hall, Will 1736 (Dromore)

Henry, Jams. 1736 (Kilrea)
Johnston, W. 1734 (Belfast)
Kean, Aaron (Malone)
Knox, John 1735 (Belfast)
Maculla, Jas. 1728-31 (Dublin)
Magarragh, Hugh 1736 (Belfast)
Mackie, Sam 1736 (Richhill)
McClure, Alex. 1735 (Ballyloughan)
McCully, John 1761 (Newtownards)
McQuoid, Willm. 1736 (Newtownards)
Miller, Robt. 1736 (Portaferry)
Morton, Alex. 1736 (Armagh)
Mountgomery, Hugh (Glenarm)
O'Brien, Thos. 1736 (Lurgan)
Overend, John 1736 (Portadown)
Rea, Thoms. 1736 (Dungannon)
Ringland, Wm. 1734-35 (Belfast)
Smyth, Edwd. (Lisburn)
Stewart, John 1735 (Killyleigh)
Templeton, Jams. 1736 (Stewarts-town)
Wilson, Jos. 1735 (Lurgan)

ANNEX III

The Counties of Ireland

The historic divisions are Ulster, the 9 northern counties, of which 6 now compose Northern Ireland; Leinster, the 12 eastern counties; Connaught, the 5 western counties; and Munster, the 6 southern counties.

Ulster—Antrim, Armagh, Down, Fermanagh, Londonderry, Tyrone, (all Northern Ireland, and) Cavan, Donegal, Monaghan.

Leinster—Carlow, Dublin, Kildare, Kilkenny, Leix (formerly Queen's), Longford, Louth, Meath, Offaly (formerly King's), Westmeath, Wexford, Wicklow.

Connaught—Galway, Leitrim, Mayo, Roscommon, Sligo.

Munster—Clare, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, Waterford.

'No Submission' Token

The medalet, "No Submission to the North; The Wealth of the South" was struck in Cincinnati in 1860 for circulation through the Southern States, among those favoring the cause of secession.

A medalet with the same reverse, "The Wealth of the South", but bearing on the obverse a shield, and the inscription, "Our Rights, the Constitution, and the Union", was struck by the same parties for circulation

among the Southern Unionists, but it met with little demand. It has no date.

During the manufacture of the medalet, "No Submission to the North", one of the dies was repeatedly broken, and, as a consequence, there are four varieties of the obverse. The earliest impressions have no period after the date, and are further marked by fainter rays diverging from the base of the palm-



etto. The later impressions show a period after the date, with more prominent rays. But few were struck in copper. Those first issued were pierced and silvered.

During the early days of the war, while communication with the South was open via Louisville and Nashville, large quantities of freight were shipped over that line by express, after passing the inspection of the Custom House officers at Cincinnati. A package of these medals was detained in the express office here, and, having been opened, I secured one for a friend. All in the package were silvered and pierced.

Several years later I discovered the dies, but could not prevail upon their owner to make any restrikes,

as one of the dies is cracked, and he did not wish to risk its destruction.

Those who possess this little war token, with the absence of the period, can rest assured that they have the rarest variety, and if pierced and silvered, it is further evidence of its earlier manufacture.

The one bearing the Union sentiment is of great scarcity, and, although the dies are in the same hands, it would be difficult either to obtain restrikes or purchase the dies.

—American Journal of Numismatics.

* * *

Reprinted from Scott's *The Coin Collector's Journal*, January 1883, p. 15. Actual diameter (22 mm.) increased 222%. Photography by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis, Brea.

NAVAJO CENTENNIAL MEDAL

A century ago the Navajo Tribe of Indians signed a treaty of peace with the U.S. Government. This act culminated four years of warfare, deprivation, hardship and resulted in Federal recognition of the sovereignty of the Navajo Tribe. The treaty was signed at Fort Sumner, New Mexico, June 1, 1868. It was approved and confirmed by the Senate on July 25, and proclaimed by President Andrew Johnson on Aug. 12.

In addition to various festivities, pageants and other activities being put on by the Navajo Tribe this summer—a centennial medal has been issued.

This Navajo centennial medal bears on its face a Navajo woman en-

grossed in her traditional occupation of rug weaving. In the background are pictured a primitive hogan, and the beautiful landscape of Monument Valley. Reverse shows symbols indicative of the "Century of Progress" of the Navajoes. The symbols shown surround the Horned Sun, a religious figure and a great unifying factor in the lives of the Navajo people today as well as a hundred years ago.

The bronze medal is priced at \$1.50, and the .999 fine silver at \$12.50, each plus 25¢ postage. A brochure is included with each medal. If not available at your local dealer, they may be secured from the Navajo Centennial Medallion Committee, P.O. Box 839, Farmington, New Mexico, 87401.

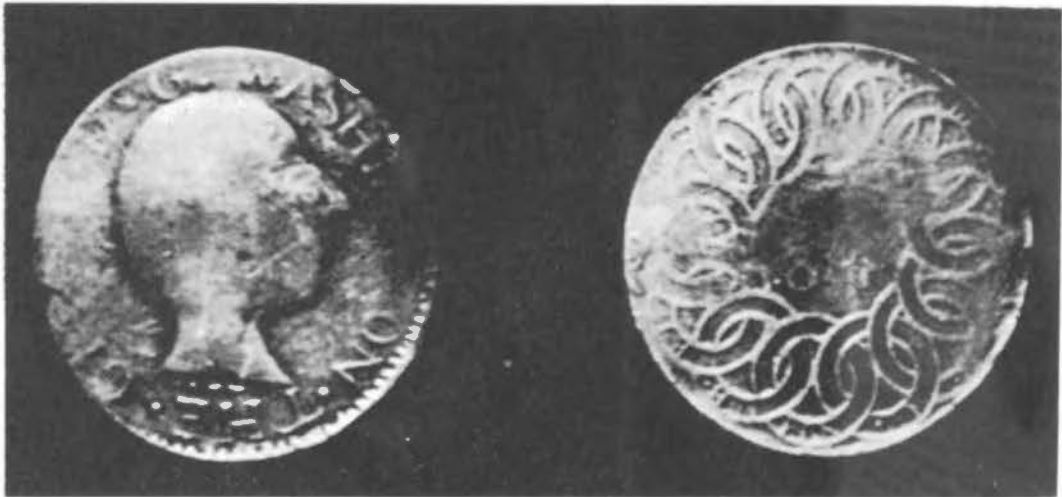


Profits from the sale of these medals will be used for service and

welfare projects conducted for needy Navajo families.

THE UGLY HEAD OF WASHINGTON

By MAURICE M. GOULD, Boston, Mass.



The most unusual of all medals struck for the Father of our Country is called **The Ugly Head**.

The reason for this is that the medal may be described as follows: Obverse: "Washington the Great, D.G.", a very ugly head facing right, border serrated. The reverse has a chain of thirteen rings, each bearing the name of a state, and in the center space "84".

Crosby, in his monumental work on Colonial coins, said: "the border and edge size are 16½, the weight 102 grains."

The "84" may be the last two figures of the date as it is possible that the figure "17" may have been above, as the two figures now occupy only the lower half of the central field.

The profile of Washington is shown without his wig and with his false

teeth removed, giving him a grotesque appearance.

There are only a few specimens known of this extremely rare item. One is in the National Collection, one at the Massachusetts Historical Society headquarters, and the author has both a genuine piece and an interesting copy.

These pieces were evidently struck by Tories, and the ones known seem only to have shown up in the Boston area.

We all know of the great many medals of Washington lauding him for the work he did for his country, many of them depicting him as the General on horseback, but this is the only satirical piece, showing him in an unfavorable light and belittling and besmirching the great hero of the Revolution.

Scottish Token Coinage

By RUSSELL RULAU, Albuquerque, N. Mex.

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Introduction

In this, our first venture into the fascinating field of token coinage of the Scots, we are presenting a sequel to our previous Irish Token Coinage (Calcoin News, Summer 1962 issue) and we hasten to add, for the benefit of all Scots, that the choice of which came first reflects no favoritism on our part. We hold the Sons of Erin and the Bonny Scots in equal high esteem.

The land of Robert Bruce and Robert Burns, of Mary, Queen of Scots, of Bonny Prince Charlie and the Stuart line of monarchs, of the heather and the thistle, of the kilted clans and the bagpipes—we feel—is a worthy successor as a subject to the tokens of Ireland.



In order to better understand the *raison d'être* for the Scottish tokens we shall discuss, a very brief review of the Scottish monetary system is in order here. Scotch regal copper coins, used until the formal union of England and Scotland into a single nation in 1707, consisted of:

The HALF-TURNER, or 1 penny Scottish;

The TURNER (more frequently called BODLE), or 2 pence Scottish;

The BAWBEE, or 6 pence Scottish.

Coins in copper in the above denominations were issued regularly for about one century, from the issues of James VI in 1597 to those of William III in 1697. After the legislative union under Good Queen Anne in 1707, regular British coppers were introduced.

For most of the period 1597-1697, the Scottish shilling was equal to 1 penny English. The ratios of par exchange varied somewhat, but for the purpose of illustration, we may assume that:

The Half-Turner equalled $1/12$ penny English. A separate $1/12$ penny was not then in use in England, although much later a $1/3$ farthing came into use for Malta.

The Bodle equalled $1/6$ penny English. Again there was no comparable English equivalent.

The Bawbee equalled $1/2$ penny English. The Bawbee came into use only in the latter part of the period, beginning under Charles II in 1677.

The same motivations that caused so many trade tokens to take the place of regal coinage in England and Ireland also caused the people of Scotland to issue large quantities of these tokens in the 18th and 19th centuries. (See our previous "Irish Token Coinage" for full treatment.)

It shall be our purpose here to discuss the little-known issues of Scottish merchants and cities without reviewing the entire background of the movement except as it pertains to Scotland itself.

Scottish Communion Tokens, which are a field entirely apart, will not be covered herein. Our colleague, James Andrew Beverley of the Austin Presbyterian Theological Seminary in Austin, Texas, working with the famed Oliver Keith Rumbel collection there, is engaged presently in a major study of this series.

Also not included, but mentioned here in passing, are the large number of purely English tokens which have "Payable in Glasgow" (or other Scottish cities) impressed on their edges. The bulk of these are merely varieties caused by the English makers to create rare varieties for the collector, and possess no Scotch characteristics.

The Seventeenth Century

The 17th century issues of England, Wales and Ireland did not permeate into Scotland and few Scotch local

issues are known for the period 1649-1672. The first large-scale use of trade tokens in Scotland came near the end of the 18th century.

It must be recalled that, while Scotland and England had a common king in Charles I (1625-49), and thereafter, they were not legislatively united and the execution of Charles I in 1649 severed temporarily the personal union of England and Scotland. The Scots immediately recognized Charles II as king, but in England he was not so recognized until 1660.

The Scots had been opposed bitterly to the executed monarch but would not, at this juncture, go so far as to usurp the royal prerogatives of coinage, as happened almost immediately in the other parts of Charles' domain.

Scotch regal coppers were provided for local use until the end of the century and thus there existed no economic need for a supplementary token issue.

The Eighteenth Century

As stated before, the Union of Scotland and England came in 1707, although the famous Scottish revolts of 1715 and 1745 threatened to sever this union. "The Fifteen" and "The Forty-Five," as they are known to the Scotch, were a glorious and a tragic page in the nation's history. Nowhere in Scotch annals can be found two more stirring pages of romance than in the revolts of the Old Pretender and the Young Pretender. We commend readers to a few hours of reading on this period among the many standard works of non-fiction and fictionalized historic romance.

The career of Prince Charles Edward, or "Bonnie Prince Charlie," from the initial success at Prestonpans through the high-water mark at

Derby to disaster at Culloden, is especially intriguing.

The ultimate defeat of Bonnie Prince Charlie at Culloden led to the solidification of the Union, and thenceforth Scotland's destiny became tied to the star of England.

Bearing in mind the last statement, it is not surprising that, when trade tokens made their appearance in England in 1786, the Scotch were not long in following the lead.

Eighteenth Century Tokens

Merchants in Glasgow anticipated the eventual huge issues of tokens which were to follow, and in 1780 began using tradesman cards in lieu of regal coppers and the many counterfeits then in circulation. James Angus in 1780, Ralph Erskin and Co. in 1781, and Kirkwood's, also in 1781, all issued copper farthings of good weight and workmanship.

While most of the later tokens were halfpennies, silver shillings and copper pennies and farthings appeared also. These were issued by merchants who promised to redeem them in coin of the realm, as well as by towns and other governmental bodies. A number of other tokens of a general nature were sold by the manufacturers to anyone who would buy them and place them in circulation.

These "general" tokens resulted in a tidy profit for manufacturer and issuer and it involved no liability for redemption on the part of either as all these pieces are anonymous.

The City of Dundee in Forfarshire (now Angusshire) issued shillings in silver picturing a Highlander and ancient ruins. These shillings exist also in copper and all are quite scarce, ranging in value from \$5 to \$15 each in very fine condition.



Obverses

Common Reverse

Dundee also issued copper pennies, halfpennies and farthings, featuring local buildings and trade activities. Other Forfarshire towns, such as Brechin, Forfar and Montrose also issued anonymous coppers. Few, if any, tradesman cards seem to have emanated from this area.

The commercial metropolises of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Perth and Leith also issued a large number of coppers, with the first two also possessing many tradesman pieces of this period.

Notable among the Glasgow merchants who issued tokens were Ewing, Hamilton, Randolph, and Smith and Gibson. Edinburgh was represented by such as Anderson Leslie & Co., Archibald, Campbell, Harrison, Hutchison, The Register Office, Sanderson and Wright.

Many of these latter copies are common, selling for as little as 50 cents each in very fine condition, but many others are very rare, commanding \$20 and upwards each.

The Nineteenth Century

Scottish 19th century issues fall into three distinct categories: first, a continuation of the copper types of the preceding century, which are uncommon; second, a number of lead, copper and white metal farthings of a new type, all of which are excessively rare; and third, countermarked silver and copper regal coins or earlier tokens, these latter are also uniformly rare.

Except for commercial farthings of the Lanarkshire towns (Calton, Glasgow and Hamilton), the 19th century Scotch tokens appear in very few collectors' cabinets. The countermarked issues are especially prized and actively sought after by British collectors.

Some of the countermarks one may find are:

ADELPHI COTTON WORK (Perthshire)

ALLOA COLLIERY (Alloa in Clackmannan)

BALLINDALLOCH COTTON WORK (Elgin, now Moray)

CULGREUCH MILL, THOS. WHITE (Stirling)

DEANSTON COTTON MILL (Perthshire)

DUN. McLAREN MERCHT. LOCKEARN (probably Lochearnhead in Perth)

LANARK COTTON MILLS (Hamilton in Lanarkshire)

ROBERT McNEE FINTRY (Stirling)

ROTHSAY COTTON MILLS (Rothsay in Buteshire)

ROTHSAY MILLS (Rothsay in Buteshire)

These countermarks may occur on George III halfpennies, 18th century tokens of various kinds, bawbees of Charles II, on Spanish silver coins of the larger denominations, etc. Those struck on silver coins are especially rare.

Lead farthings were principally from the Edinburghshire (now Midlothian) towns, such as Edinburgh, Dalkeith, Eskmills, Leith and Musselburgh. Most are dated, with range from 1805 to 1821, and all are merchant cards. Mostly these lead pieces did not survive, and are priced beyond the reach of the average collector. For this reason, they are not discussed further here.

Copper tokens, which one may find occasionally at reasonable prices, include:

WILLIAM CHRISTIE, 1819 (Leith)

J. KIRK, 1817 (Dunfermline)

EAST MILL, 1801 (Brechin)

PHOENIX IRON-WORKS (Glasgow)

HENRY REID, 1815 (Glasgow)

HAMILTON RETAILERS, 1814 (Hamilton)

JOHN STEELE (Edinburgh)

These range from \$1 to \$5 each in very fine condition if bought directly from England; in the United States the price will be somewhat higher.

Conclusion

This review of Scottish token issues may serve to introduce some of these intriguing substitutes for money to our fellow collectors for the first time. Little has been written about them in this country in recent years, and they are consequently unknown to the average American collector. We hope we may have shed a little light in another dark numismatic corner.

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Panama-Pacific International Exposition, 1915. Kenney Nos. 90-92.
Size increased by three-eighths. Photos by Dr. C. Glenn Curtis.

So-Called Dollars

By R. G. McARTHUR, Oakland

I very strongly suspect that the term "So-Called Dollars" was first used by a coin dealer, who found himself overstocked with silver dollar size medals. When first used, the name was applied to any piece which closely approximated in size, weight and feel, either the silver or the gold United States dollar. The series, as presently constituted, includes exposition and commemorative medals, as well as those pieces which are political or quasi-monetary in nature.

The writer, being a man of limited means, has spent untold hours rummaging through dealers' junk trays in search of less expensive numismatic items. A large number of recognized "So-Called Dollars" were thus acquired before their true significance was discovered. Much credit for this discovery goes to Richard D. Kenney for his excellent monograph, "So-Called Dollars", which was published by Wayte Raymond, Inc. of New York, as the July-August 1953 issue of *The Coin Collector's Journal*. All references in this article are to Mr. Kenney's catalog.

The series includes pieces struck in a variety of metals, including gold, silver, copper, brass, bronze, gilt and aluminum. Incidentally, the

first aluminum pieces to appear were struck for the Columbian Exposition of 1892-93. However, aluminum, due to its light weight, did not prove popular and hence, with the "Brian Boru Crown", made its exit from the series in 1910.

A measure of dignity attaches to some of the commemorative pieces, in that they were struck by the United States Mint or were struck at the several expositions on mint machinery, under mint supervision. These include the "Lexington Dollars" of 1875 (K-3, K-4, K-5 and K-6), struck to commemorate the battle of Lexington; the "Centennial Dollars" of 1876 (K-7, K-8 and K-9), commemorating the 100th anniversary of American independence; the "Nevada Dollar" (K-46), also issued in 1876; the official Columbian Exposition pieces of 1893 (K-47, K-48 and K-49); the official Louisiana Purchase Exposition souvenir pieces, struck in 1903-04 (K-56, K-57, K-58, K-59 and K-60); the Panama-California Exposition pieces of 1915 (K-86, K-87, K-88 and K-89); and the familiar Panama-Pacific pieces, also struck in 1915 (K-90, K-91 and K-92). To this list should be added the rare "Wilson Dollar" (K-180 and K-181) which was struck in 1920 to commemorate the opening of the

mint in Manila, P.I., the dies for which were made by George Morgan of the Philadelphia Mint.

The writer has encountered but two commemorative pieces which purport to be other than medals. The first is the "Henry Hudson Daalder" of 1909 (K-71 through 77), which bears the denomination 1 DAALDER on its reverse. The other is the "Brian Boru Crown" of 1910 (K-84 and K-85) which shows on its reverse the denomination AON CROIN (One Crown). Incidentally, the Brian Boru crown or Irish-American token, appears to be the only piece in the series to have been sponsored by a numismatic organization, the New York Numismatic Club. In time, no doubt, some recent tokens or medals, issued by numismatic organizations, will be recognized as "So-Called Dollars".

Chief of the political group are the "Bryan Dollars". They are mostly larger than a silver dollar and were issued purely for use during the presidential campaigns of 1896 and 1900. While they are treated by Mr. Kenney in his book, they hold no particular interest for your writer and will not be discussed in this article.

Also political in nature are the "Referendum Dollars" issued in 1900 and 1901 by Joseph Leshner of Victor, Col. (K-130 through 144). Octagonal in shape and containing an ounce of coin silver, they undoubtedly saw service as a local medium of exchange. With five major types and many subvarieties, they are one of the most interesting as well as the rarest of the entire series of so-called dollars.

The following have three things in common; all are dollar size, all contain an ounce of silver and all were issued in 1933. They are the

Montana Dollar (K-165), the Colorado Dollars (K-166 through 169), the Pedley-Ryan Dollars (K-170 through 174) and the Nevada Dollar (K-175).

As to the Bryan Dollars, the Leshner Dollars and the entire group of Montana, Colorado and Pedley-Ryan Dollars, values have been pretty well established. However, as to the commemorative and exposition pieces, there is much confusion. Even the old, established dealers do not agree. For instance, just a few weeks ago, the writer purchased a Brian Boru crown in aluminum (K-85) from a well-known San Francisco dealer for \$3.50. One week later, an equally well-known Los Angeles dealer advertised it for \$32.50. Thank heavens, I purchased mine before the price went up. A few short years ago, I purchased a Wilson Dollar (K-180) from a San Diego dealer for \$10. He still hates me, as shortly thereafter it was quoted as high as \$90. For several years, I hunted through all the dealers' material, watched all the auction catalogs, and inquired at all conventions for one of the William Penn Dollars (K-105 and K-106), but simply could not find the elusive little piece. One day, a few weeks ago, I happened to see it in the junk tray of a local dealer. With fear and trepidation, I asked him to let me see the tray, as there might be something in it that I could use. After fingering most of the medals in the tray, I gingerly picked up the desired piece and, as nonchalantly as possible, asked the price. Imagine my delight when he said, "Aw gimme 50 cents."

So, fellow numismaniacs, if you want to get in on the ground floor, while there is still time, get a copy of Kenney's book and start hunting for the commemorative issues of the "So-Called Dollars"

BADGE OF MILITARY MERIT

There can be little argument to the fact that the **Purple Heart** is held by more Disabled American Veterans than any other combat-earned medal.

This coveted badge of personal sacrifice was first established by General George Washington on August 7, 1782, as the Badge of Military Merit. In his order, General Washington stated:

"The General, ever desirous to cherish a virtuous ambition in his soldiers, as well as to foster and encourage every species of Military merit, directs that whenever any singularly meritorious action is performed, the author of it shall be permitted to wear on his facings, over his left breast, the figure of a heart in

purple cloth, or silk, edged with narrow lacing or binding . . .

"The road to glory in a patriot army and a free country is thus opened to all. The order is also to have retrospect to the earliest days of the war, and to be considered a permanent one."

Despite General Washington's directive that the award "be considered a permanent one", it dropped to obscurity following the War of the Revolution. For nearly 150 years the Badge of Military Merit fell into complete disuse.

Then, on Feb. 22, 1932—the 200th anniversary of George Washington's birth — the War Department announced:

"By order of the President of the United States, the Purple Heart, established by Gen. George Washington at Newburgh, New York . . . is hereby revived out of respect to his memory and military achievements."

The task of redesigning the Purple Heart was assigned to Miss Elizabeth Wills, a military heraldry specialist in the Office of the Quartermaster General of the Army. Miss Wills, who has over 40 years of government service to her credit, has designed numerous symbolic items used by the Army, including coats of arms, shoulder sleeve insignia and badges. In addition to the Purple Heart, she has also played a major role in designing such familiar symbols as the Seal and Flag of the Vice President of the United States, Seals of both the Department of Defense and Department of the Air Force, and the Department of the Army General Staff Identification Badge.

Instructions given to Miss Wills emphasized: "The design should be emblematic of the original 'figure of a heart in purple cloth or silk, edged in narrow lace or binding' but of the general form of existing decorations. It should be characterized by simplicity and inexpensiveness with regard to the original, which was practically without cost. The container will be of the simplest type."

Miss Wills recalls: "The instructions, although brief, imposed several specific requirements . . . In addition to these requirements, it appeared to me appropriate to include something symbolic of General Washington."

She subsequently presented two designs for consideration to the Secre-



tary of War, both of which included the shield from the Washington coat of arms. One design was all bronze, without enamel and purple in the ribbon only. The other, according to Miss Wills, had a heart in purple enamel across which was a sprig design similar to that appearing in the damask of one of the original cloth badges.

"This latter design became the basis for the final design in which the sprig was replaced by General Washington's bust . . . submitted to, and favorably considered by, the Commission of Fine Arts and subsequently given to a sculptor for execution," says Miss Wills.

It is significant to note that Washington's original "Badge of Military Merit" does not appear in the revived award. Rather, the words "For Military Merit" appear in raised lettering on the reverse side of the Purple Heart.

Although the new Purple Heart was not in existence during World War I, the War Department General Orders 3 of Feb. 22, 1932, (and amended by Executive Order 11016, April 25, 1962) provided that: "Upon letter of application to The Adjutant General, award may be made to any member of the Army during World War I who was awarded a Meritorious Services Citation Certificate signed by the Commander in Chief, American Expeditionary Forces, or who was authorized to wear wound chevrons. Posthumous awards to personnel who were killed or died of wounds after 5 April 1917 will be made to the appropriate next of kin upon application to The Adjutant General."

Those eligible for the Purple Heart, awarded in the name of the President of the United States are "any member of an Armed Force or any civilian

national of the United States, who, while serving under competent authority in any capacity with one of the United States Armed Services after 5 April 1917 has been wounded, killed, or who has died or may hereafter die after being wounded."

Created more than 150 years ago, George Washington's original Purple Heart is believed to be the first military decoration for bravery given by any country without respect to rank. And those who wear the Purple Heart wear it proudly, because, said General Washington, "Not only instances of unusual gallantry, but also of extraordinary fidelity and essential service in any way shall meet with due reward."

(Re-print from January 1965 issue of *DAV*, official publication of the organization of Disabled American Veterans.)

Symbols of Honor

By MABEL D. PATTERSON, Daly City

From the first history of human endeavor there have been efforts to be recognized for accomplishment. Through the striving for honor, prestige, beauty, wealth, etc., way back in the dim past (it is hard to determine just how far back), tokens to represent the success of these ambitions were established. These symbols took on many shapes and materials, some of which are the medals, orders and decorations which have been issued for many years in all parts of the world.

We, in the United States, because of our democratic heritage, are rather cynical about this type of reward. For years our government was loath to issue any type of decoration although President Washington, when General of the Revolutionary Forces, recognized the need of distinction awards for outstanding service and instituted the Order of the Purple Heart.

Today, many who win any type of distinction award in military service are almost ashamed to admit they have received such recognition. There are those who are quick to criticize the Orders of Europe as being primarily the symbolism and organiza-

tion of the caste system of royalty. We are here not concerned with the realism and cynicism that can be recalled in connection with the issuing of these beautiful tokens but only in the higher aspects of man's striving for the more beautiful, honorable, ideal way of life and the recognition of his accomplishment.

If our imagination fills in between the lines, that is the way it should be, for it is easy when looking at these symbols of chivalry and military accomplishment to let ourselves travel back to childhood and the story-book land of King Arthur's Roundtable.

To the collector, decorations mean many things and the facets a collection of these items can have is boundless. To him who is interested in history, it is easy to see what a field of interest each one could represent, for the history of mankind since the crusades could all be tied in with these insignia of outstanding achievement if we could collect all that have been issued during that time. To pursue this history could take a lifetime of worthwhile activity.

To the individual interested in mil-

itary success over the years and the campaigns of the wars fought, surely these medallions can hold forth a new world of study. To hold a campaign medal in one's hand and read the name of the original recipient brings reality that is not attainable by merely reading about an engagement.

To the person interested in art, decorations represent an endless field of research determining who the creator of each one was, what the various crests represent, etc.

Let us return, though, to the ideals for which decorations are issued and follow the background of a few of the better known.

The Order of St. John of Jerusalem is issued by several countries of Europe today and the basic design is identical in all of them. The primary change in each instance is identification with the country of issue. Although all of these can be associated with the original order, time has registered several reorganizations and major changes. It was instituted originally more or less as a monastic order for the protection of Christianity in the Holy Land and the care of travelers to that area. A hospital was established to take care of these travelers and this is the reason that the St. John of Jerusalem Orders today are awarded for hospital and charitable activities. It is, however, primarily aristocratic in its membership.

The Order of the Rose of Brazil was prompted in its institution by the love of Dom Pedro II for his second wife, and was founded to commemorate their marriage. Any present-day wife certainly would agree that there could be no more noble motivation than this. The order was issued for both military and civil merit.

The original Order of Saint Stanislaus was Polish and was instituted to procure friends and adherents for the throne. It bears the legend "Encouraged by Reward". Later, under Russian emperors, it was issued to those who sacrificed their property for the good of the country and the second and third classes were conferred for deeds of valor.

Of course, the list of orders and decorations conferred for valor, courage, bravery or gallantry is long indeed. Certainly this is the most common reason for the award of these tokens, but many people would agree



ORDER OF ST. STANISLAUS

that there could be no better purpose. For, while these are attributes more frequently associated with war, they are as vital to peaceful existence. Our newspapers daily carry stories of such exploits exhibited in the routine of living and the unpublicized, unheralded examples are innumerable.

The Medal of Bravery of Serbia is conferred on officers whose personal bravery has been proved in action, and on non-commissioned officers for special gallantry in leading men in action where there was no officer present. The obverse bears the bust of Miloch Oblitch, the national hero of the Serbian race, who at the battle of Kossovo against the Turks penetrated to the tent of the Sultan Murad and killed him, after which Oblitch himself was overpowered and slain.

An order of more recent issue which certainly has a good deal of symbolism is the Order of Sokol (Hawk) of Czechoslovakia. Awarded for military services in this small country which has fought so very hard for freedom and existence, the five arms of the Maltese Cross represent the five great powers which

determined the future of Czechoslovakia at the peace conference in 1918 — the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan. The three blue hills in a field of white in the central medallion represent the three principal mountains of Slovakia and the four gold hawks flying over the mountains symbolize the four component lands, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Slovakia.

The Order of Leopold of Belgium, conferred to the military for gallantry in the field and to civilians for outstanding service, has a motto that undoubtedly would appeal to most Americans, "L'Union Fait La Force" (Union Constitutes Power).

The Order of The Madonna of Guadalupe of Mexico was named for the patron saint of Mexico, Our Lady of Guadalupe, and given for civil and military merit. It existed for only a short time. However, the inscription, "Religion, Independence, Union", states three principles it would be well for any government to adhere to. The reverse medallion is engraved "Heroic Patriotism" when awarded

for military purposes and "Merit and Virtue" when given for civil merit.

The legend, "Zeal, Decoration, Loyalty", which is inscribed on the Order of the Medjidie of Turkey could easily be ratified by the most critical. This order was founded to reward distinguished service in the various departments of the government, and when given for civil merit, at least 20 years of outstanding service are required.

All governments and regents recognize loyalty as an outstanding and vital virtue of the citizenry. Both the Royal American Order of Isabella the Catholic of Spain and the Order of Merit of Isabelle II (both military and civil) were designed to reward loyalty to the crown.

The French governor-general at Saigon, to reward exceptional services rendered in agriculture, commerce, industry and the arts, founded the Order of Merit of French Indo-China, which is given to Asiatics only. The inscription in native characters signifies "To make known that which is beautiful". Not a bad motto!

The Order of the Bust of Bolivar could have been issued by any one of five South American republics he helped to found — Venezuela, Colombia, Bolivia, Ecuador or Peru. However, Venezuela instituted this order to honor its hero-founder and to reward citizens and foreigners for civil or military services. The inscription reads fittingly, "Libertad".

The above list of decorations is short but it could be very long. It will be noticed that even this small group represents a number of countries from around the globe; but wherever they are instituted, man's higher aspirations and standards of virtue are similar. Recognizing this fact may help lead us further on the path to one of the highest ideals of all — the Brotherhood of Man.



ORDER OF THE MADONNA OF GUADALUPE

DUDLEY EVANS, ACTING PRESIDENT, SAN FRANCISCO
GEO. E. GRAY, FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT, SAN FRANCISCO
NATHAN STEIN, SECRETARY, SAN FRANCISCO
H. B. PARSONS, ASSISTANT SECRETARY, NEW YORK
HOMER S. KING, TREASURER, SAN FRANCISCO

OFFICE OF THE ACTING PRESIDENT

Wells Fargo & Company

Express and Banking

San Francisco, March 1, 1902.

To the Employees of Wells Fargo & Company:

It has been the custom from earliest times to commemorate not only important historical events, but to emphasize in some appropriate manner the birthdays of individuals, institutions and business enterprises of public utility.

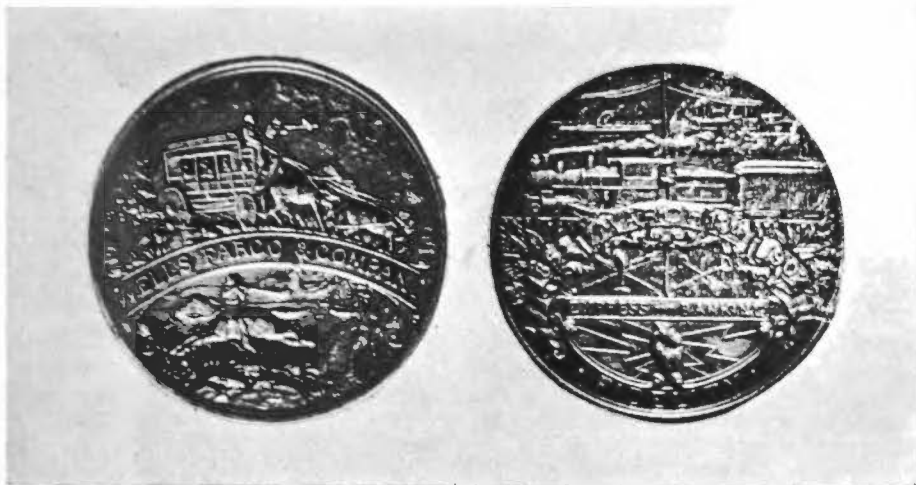
The eighteenth of March, 1902, will be the Fiftieth Anniversary of the organization of WELLS FARGO & COMPANY. Early in last year it was decided to signalize the occasion by presenting to employees a silver medal as a token of the Company's appreciation of their zeal and fidelity to its interests.

In furtherance of the cherished wish of our late lamented President, who, previous to his death, caused the medal to be designed with typical representations on either side in bas-relief, we have had a sufficient number struck to meet the requirements of the Department Managers, who will see that one of these medals, so unique in character and precious as a souvenir of the Semi-Centennial of the Company's existence, is delivered on or about the date named, with copy of this Circular, to each employee who has been in the Company's service for a period of one year prior to the Anniversary.

Congratulations to the gainers of the medal, and to all employees commendation for their faithful service and good wishes for their welfare are hereby cordially extended.

Yours very truly,


Acting President



WELLS FARGO & COMPANY 1902 MEDAL

As stated in the Curator's Report, Spring 1964 issue of Calcoin News, we are now the proud owners of a 1902 Wells Fargo & Co. employee's medal, as pictured above. The presentation of this medal to our association was made by **Miss Irene Simpson**, director of the Wells Fargo Bank's History Room, to **Don Thrall**, CSNA member and authority on the history of the various California banks.

Shown to the left is the letter dated March 1, 1902, written by **Dudley Evans**, Acting President of the company, which letter, together with a medal, was given to each employee with one or more years service.

Ten years later Wells Fargo issued an information sheet because of the many inquiries it had received about the medal; this data sheet stated:

The Semi-Centennial Medal

Those Wells Fargo men who were in the service of the company in 1902

need no information as to this medal, which was struck off in that year in commemoration of the company's having passed its fiftieth milestone and was at once recognized by numismatic experts as a coin of rare workmanship and hence of great value. These medals were issued to the employees of the company at that time who had been in service for over a year, and any Wells Fargo man who possesses one to-day may feel that he owns a souvenir of real worth. The reproduction which the **WELLS FARGO MESSENGER** prints in this issue, of the medal, shows the exact size of the coin.

—Wells Fargo Messenger
September, 1912

All members of CSNA owe a great deal of thanks to the Wells Fargo Bank and to **Miss Simpson** for the donation of this medal to our California Collection. It is indeed a most valuable addition.

—**BRYAN BURKE, JR.**
Curator

Society for International Numismatics

BUREAU OF STANDARDS

Bulletin No. 1

The Society for International Numismatics (Los Angeles) makes the following definition: Numismatics divides into four subcategories: NUMIA, MESONUMIA, EXONUMIA and PSEUDONUMIA.

NUMIA is that area of numismatics which deals exclusively with circulating medium of exchange; specifically, all coins and paper money which is or was used in general circulation for everyday commerce.

- 1.—Regular general coinage.
- 2.—Regular issues of paper money.
- 3.—Commemoratives put into general circulation.

- 4.—Tokens and scrip in general circulation before general issues: e.g. Australia before 1910, Canada before 1858, New Zealand before 1933.

- 5.—Obsidional and siege pieces.
- 6.—Those restrikes which are put into general circulation only.

- 7.—Limited general issue for special purposes: e.g. M.P.C.'s.

MESONUMIA is that area of numismatics which deals with all coins and paper money which could have circulated as money, but did not, due to their being used as backing for currency, or for any other reason which kept them from general circulation.

- 1.—Proof, specimen and presentation pieces and sets of general circulating coinage or paper money.

- 2.—Commemorative issues of coinage or paper money issued to raise

money and not otherwise meant for circulation.

- 3.—Bullion coinage.

- 4.—Mules and hybrid coins.

EXONUMIA is that area of numismatics which deals with the following:

- 1.—Primitive media of exchange.

- 2.—Substitutes for money: e.g. hard times tokens and scrip, notgeld.

- 3.—Special purpose tokens and scrip: e.g. transportation, vending, amusement, and parking tokens, canteen chits.

- 4.—Patterns, essays, trial pieces, experimental pieces, pieforts.

- 5.—Pieces de plaisir, mint sports, off metal pieces.

- 6.—Jetons and counters.

- 7.—Medals, medallions and medalets.

- 8.—Orders and decorations.

- 9.—Coin weights.

- 10.—Coin scales.

- 11.—Charms, amulets and temple pieces.

PSEUDONUMIA is that area of numismatics which deals with those items which were produced to exploit numismatists and collectors.

- 1.—Counterfeits, spurious pieces, forgeries.

- 2.—Beckers, paduans, "jewelry".

- 3.—Fantasy pieces, pieces de fantaisie.

- 4.—Restrikes, abschlag, refrappe.

- 5.—Electrotypes, replicas.

X-rays Control Coin Production

By JOSEPH C. MOORE, New York, N.Y.

The United States Mint at Denver has pioneered among mints of the world in the control of weight of coins by a new method. A unique X-ray gauge, produced by Industrial Gauges Corp., West Englewood, N.J., provides all-electronic control of the thickness of the metal strip from

which the coins are formed, so they do not vary from the extremely close tolerances established for our coins.

The new non-contact gauging system measures and controls the coinage strip on several reduction passes through a finishing mill, by sensing the variation in intensity of X-rays

beamed through the strip as thickness changes. If the metal begins to deviate from the precise thickness set for each reduction pass, electronic circuits activate the mill controls to correct the error. This electronic circuitry is capable of actuating the mill equipment to control the thickness to within less than one-half of a tenth of a thousandth of an inch.

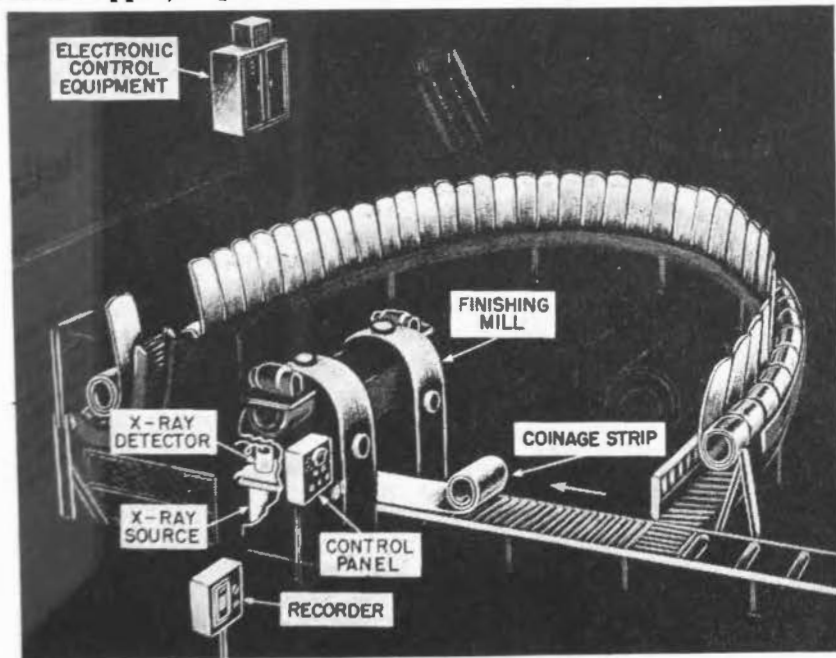
After rolling, coils are slit, blanks are cut from the strip, test weighed, and subsequently annealed, cleaned, upset and stamped. The number of rejects for over and under weight has been so substantially reduced that the new equipment has considerably increased the mint's production rate.

Although X-ray gauging equipment has been measuring and automatically controlling the thickness of other types of metal strip for about 10 years, the gauging of coinage strip had never before been attempted by non-contact gauging. It had been thought that the broad range of thickness (.038 in. to .196 in.) and the wide variety of alloys rolled on a single mill made non-contact radiation gauges impractical. The alloys in coins range from the heavy alloy of silver, through a nickel base alloy, to a copper alloy for the cents.

Respective compositions are: 90 per cent silver, 10 per cent copper; 75 per cent copper, 25 per cent nickel; 95 per cent copper, 5 per cent zinc.

To be effective, the control gauge must have precise and unvarying calibration for these alloys and for the wide thickness range. Industrial Gauges solved the alloy and thickness problems with a type of built-in automatic calibration never before employed. With this method, when the operator sets control dials for the alloy and thickness (in thousandths), standards within the gauge are checked against gauge indication of strip thickness to assure correctness and uniformity of measurement. These standard thickness values will not vary for the life of the equipment.

Studies show that the new automatic controls make 10 times as many major and minor corrections during rolling as the mill operator error occurs, the electronic circuits analyze the changes of thickness, predict the approach of significant change, and actuate the controls to forestall it. The equipment can correct for thickness variations effortlessly, tirelessly, hour after hour, day after day, and control to much closer tolerances than can be expected of hand operation. The degree of concentration and attentiveness that would be required for continuous hand control is beyond human capability. Also, the circuitry which is analyzing the nature of the changes permits compensation for deviations before they are apparent to the operator.



BEFORE COINS WHAT?

By PEGGY BORGOLTE, Sepulveda

Coins represent a certain value. When we purchase an article, we give in exchange a coin which represents the value of the commodity purchased. Before coins were in use an article was given in exchange.

Exchange was carried on by barter. Barter was a slow and trying process, and was open to two objections. "First, those who wished to buy might have nothing which those who wished to sell cared to take in exchange; and secondly, it would require much time and haggling to decide the relative value of the different articles."

Hence it was gradually found that trade would be greatly facilitated by fixing on some medium which might be used as a standard of value which might be accepted, not for use, but to be exchanged again. We find there was: nail money from New England, leather money of Mexico, glass money of Egypt, wampum of the American Indians, stone, stick and shell money of the South Seas, wooden money of the arctic, cloth money of the Congo, amber money of Lithuania, porcelain money of Siam, birch bark coins of Sweden, silk, velvet and linen money of Germany, tea money of Tibet, tobacco money of Virginia, salt money of Siberia, tin money of Syracuse and Britain, iron money of Sparta, platinum money of Russia, lead money of Burma, jade and brass money of China.

Most of the materials named were found to be perishable, and as it really represented a property value which had been created by manual labor, the tendency and disposition of men to accumulate riches led them, as time went on, to fix a special value upon the metals as a durable and always available kind of property, and thus came into use the metals we know as copper, silver and gold.

Let us go back to barter time, some 500 years B.C., in the city of Ming, China. A man trades a knife for a bushel of wheat or a shirt for a bag of rice. One could not carry his pocket full of knives or shirts, so gradually small models of the objects were made to represent the article such as "tao" knife and "pu" cloth to represent the original article.

Thus we have the tao (knife money) and pu (merchandise money) of China to represent the article bartered in exchange. The knife money had a round flange at the end of the handle with a hole so it could be strung on a cord to prevent loss. Gradually the knife was shortened, when in 7 to 20 A.D. it had been reduced to only a quarter of the length of the original size (about 7 inches). Later, no doubt, the thought occurred, why carry so much metal? So the blade and handle were abandoned, leaving only the round flange with the hole and thus came into being the round holed brass coins of China.

The next step was to reduce current pieces of metal to a uniform size, shape and quality, value and denomination, and make them by special enactment, a legal tender for the payment of all taxes and public dues.

Thus a legalized currency of coined money was created, and the exchangeable value of the various metals used for that purpose fully established, to the great convenience of the world at large.

The word "money" primarily implies "coin". It is said to take its origin from the fact that the early Roman coins were struck in or near the temple of Juno Moneta. Juno received this name, according to Cicero, from the verb "moneo", because she advised the Romans to sacrifice a sow to Cybele to avert an earthquake. Suidas, however, derives it from the encouraging advice she gave them in their war against Pyrrhus. Neither of these derivations seems quite satisfactory. But however Juno acquired her name of Moneta, it is evident that the name of Moneta was given to money because it was struck in or near her temple, and hence that it primarily implies "coin" and that "wealth" is a secondary meaning.

To the miser we owe much to his practice of hoarding and burying his money. The world is debtor to this dispised habit for some of the most important corroborative history of the old world.

* * * *

(Author's note: Much of the information for this article was found in Life Library, The World and Its Peoples, and The Great Ages of Man.)

Monetary Allusions in Humor

Young people nowadays imagine money is everything; when they grow older they know it.

—O. Wilde, *Portrait of Dorian Gray*.

By DR. JOSEPH RAYMOND*

A plethora of humorous allusions, ranging from slapstick to profound, relate to money. Numismatists, philosophers, poets, songsters and comedians strum their respective banjos, *tema con variazioni*, about the almighty dollar. A man even threw one across the Potomac.¹ (No feat in Washington's time: money went much farther then.) Taxes prevent its traveling far these days, as R. Armour suggests in *It All Started With Columbus*:

When the income tax came into being, people were put into tax brackets where they were held securely until they gave up. Most of them gave up plenty.

Indeed, paying taxes gives some idea of a cow's feelings toward the milking machine. Last year I tried paying my taxes with a smile, but the government insisted on money. But let us turn to happier topics, and fabricate a mosaic of monetary allusions found in humor. There are, after all, other things in life besides money: stocks, bonds and annuities, for example.

A point of departure is my neighbor's son, Hugh Next, who attended a backward school for forward boys in the East. Hugh, a loyal family man, set aside \$10 monthly for Old Grand Dad. (He drank lots to forget his sorrows, but had a very good memory—*lapsus memoriae*). The Nexts considered languages to be the most expensive part of college:

Dear Folks: My Scotch cost me \$140 this semester. Am confined to the house with a sharp attack of penury . . . been majoring in Math. Dollars to doughnuts (an even bet these days), I'm going to get a system out of it to beat the numbers. Also, I like Science. You know Franklin

discovered electricity, but the man who invented the meter made the money. Quick-silver (fast money) also appeals to me. The best way, I find, to double my money is to fold it and put it back into my bill-fold. Thus, I'll have enough money for the rest of my life—if I die tomorrow. Also studying Latin, e.g., *E Pluribus Unum* means "Show me a man who has no money and I'll show you a bum." Well, please do let me hear from you, even if it's only \$10. Your son, Hugh.

College left Hugh unphased. Footloose and family free, he first became an artist, drawing relief checks.² He met Lucy, adoring her gentle blue eyes, snowy white teeth and cool green money. He worshipped the ground she trod—until he learned she didn't own it. He heard that her father had a thriving business and that his health was failing. After Hugh took her for his awful wedded wife, the truth emerged: Dad's business was failing but his health was thriving.

Soon Lucy left Hugh for a young motor-man.³ "More power to you," he waved her away. But he had to pay alimony, or taxation without representation. Lucy only wanted custody of the money. A true vegetarian thereafter, she only pursued men with lots of cabbage. Finally Hugh remarried her to avoid paying alimony. He disliked the pay-as-you-go plan. Later he deserted her.⁴ She had called him a worm (which I couldn't believe until I saw a chicken pick him up). Still young, he died and left everything to an orphanage: seven children. *Quem di diligunt adolescens moritur*. All his life he had been unlucky, then at last he struck it rich:

* Author of *A Hypochondriac's Guide to Ill Health, 1001 Ways to Have Fun in Eunice, New Mexico and Brain Surgery: Self-Taught*.

1. Even G.W., Father of our Country, was a promoter of stock companies, a landgrabber, an exploiter of mines and timber. (A. Cooke, *The Vintage of Mencken*, New York: Vintage, 1958, p. 67.)

2. He tried many ideas, e.g., invented a fountain pen with a meatball point that wrote under gravy, dog-biscuits that tasted like a man's leg, and a hair tonic which instead of growing new

hair just shrank the customer's head so that existing hair covered it. He emceed at funerals, started a Bookie-of-the-Month Club, and tried his luck at a hand laundry, but failed because people preferred to wash their own hands; he became a mattress tester, but lay down on the job; was society editor for the *Hobo News* (an anemic paper, it had poor circulation); and later was music editor for *Popular Mechanics*.

3. Young men win 'em with a wink; elder men mention mink.

4. Desertion = poor man's divorce.

Digging his grave, they struck oil: Glück und Glas, wie bald bricht das.

My college days (or a *mauvais quart d'heure*). In college I learned to get along almost without money.⁵ Quit my first part-time job: didn't want to keep a horse out of work. Then I worked for the librarian, who gave me a fine reference:

Raymond has been with us one week. Now that he is leaving us, we are satisfied . . .

Starvation stared me in the face, a terrible sight for both of us. I was so skinny if I put a dime in my pocket I was off balance. Posing for War Relief posters, I saved something for a rainy day: one umbrella. Often I ate at the *Greasy Cuchara*. They served chocolate ice cream (it didn't show the dirt). At times sympathetic faculty (the ones who divided what was left after the football coach was paid), took me out to eat, just to see sparks fly from a knife and fork.⁶ My minute steaks were gone in 10 seconds. Poverty, a professor smugly assured me, is a blessing in disguise (the disguise is perfect). In those four years I bought only one woolen suit, advertised:

*\$20 each. At this price they won't last long.*⁷

By my senior year, I was bilious (owed a lot of bills) and needed a doctor.⁸ When I called at his office (*Lasciate ogni speranza, voi ch'entrate*), he looked at me and asked, "What do you do for a living . . . you are living, aren't you?" He took X-rays (previews of coming extractions), wanting \$75 to remove my tonsils. I gave him \$15 and told him just to loosen them a little. Later in the visit he observed, "You remind me of Lincoln — he's dead, you know." He said, "Now open your mouth and stick out your checkbook," adding, "You'll be walking in a month."⁹ True. The sale of my car¹⁰ just covered his bill. When I got well he said it was only my strong constitution that saved me. (He forgot that when he made out the bill.) I offered him my personal check for \$20 or \$5 cash. He offered me a job to pay the bill: standing outside his office to make people sick. Incidentally, he could perform magic tricks. A child swallowed a nickel and the doctor made his mother cough up \$5.

Every time I passed the pawnbroker's

window it was like looking into my own room. That pawnbroker¹¹ (one who lives off the flat of the land) always tried to pass the buck except when it had Washington's picture on it. Money flowed through his fingers as glue on a cold day. On vacations he stayed home and let his mind wander. Dining out with friends, when he saw the check coming he was afflicted with a slight impediment of the reach. Whenever he took out his pocket-book moths escaped, and when he withdrew nickels from his pocket, Jefferson blinked at the sunlight. But he was good to his wife: brought home everything he stole. On the side she picked cotton; he picked pockets. To some he looked fat. I knew the truth: it wasn't fat, but money belts . . . saving his money for a rainy century. Only time he left tips was when he ate asparagus.¹² You know how some men smoke cigars short as they can? He smoked his as long as he could. Compared to him, Jack Benny is a philanthropist. Once he gave his son a beating for buying an all-day sucker at 4 p.m.

I lived at 305 College Ave. in a small room. Or not really small: the cockroaches were just so big. It was a poor¹³ section, although the people there were comparatively wealthy: they were the only ones in the block who ever had garbage. One day I told the landlord (a nice fellow deep down in his pocketbook), "I hate to complain, but grass is growing up through the floor."¹⁴ He growled, "Whatya expect for \$20 a month, roses?" The roof leaked so much I often found myself eating the soup three times. If I paid my rent a month in advance, police wanted to know where the money came from. I had trouble meeting my bills. (Some had trouble *dodging* theirs.)

After college I went with a girl until I discovered she spent \$3000 on hairstyles. Then I went with her hairdresser. When finally I married a girl, her father asked, "Can you support a family?" I said, "Of course." He insisted, "Are you sure? There are seven of us." At first it wasn't so bad living with her folks; what irritated me was that *her* folks lived with *their* folks.

The other night my wife gave herself an economy wave (home permanent) and

5. Dad lost all in the 1929 crash: a broker jumped from a 14th story window and smashed his pushcart.

6. I had hundreds of things to eat in my room — beans. When I got tired of them I just skipped a meal.

7. *Exceptio probat regulam*.

8. 50% of doctors who switched to camels now drive cars again.

9. A 20th century Robin Hood, he stole from the rich and from the poor, too. He was as

phony as an undertaker trying to look sad at a \$6000 funeral.

10. I paid cash for the car but had the battery charged. It didn't grow on a tree; rather, it came from a plant.

11. He was a bachelor — cheating some worthy woman out of her alimony (the high cost of leaving).

12. *Undank ist der Welt Lohn*.

13. Only one class thinks more of money than the rich . . . that's the poor.

14. *Vox clamantis in deserto*.

said. "Let's take that money we've been saving for a car and eat out." So we went to San Francisco. I paid 50 cents to park the car in order not to be fined \$2 while we ate sandwiches worth 15 cents for which we paid 75 cents. The waiter (one who thinks money grows on trays) knew we were married by the way I looked first at the right-hand column of the menu. We went to an opera. It was magnificent. I could close my eyes and imagine I was home listening to the radio. Then we went to a theater to see a magician. He vanished a silver dollar, casually picking a youngster from the audience and announcing, "I'll produce the dollar on this boy. Look in your pocket, lad, and find a silver dollar." The boy brought out 95 cents in coins, saying, "I was hungry and spent a nickel for candy." A medium came to the stage for a public demonstration. An audience volunteer paid her \$20. She told him, "You have two questions." He countered, "Isn't that a lot for only two questions?" "Yes, sir, it is," she replied. "And now your second question?"

Prices still are climbing. Pumpernickel is now pumperdime. I watched inflation¹⁵ at work last weekend in a dice game in Reno.¹⁶ Those cubes were so loaded they left skid marks. New electric slot machines now accept unemployment checks.¹⁷ Those rich Nevada cattlemen don't brand cattle any more, they engrave them. After studying the well-to-do there, I am led to believe if one wishes to make a living he must work hard; if he wants to get rich,

he must attack the problem from an entirely different angle.

Before going out now to get an estimate on a four-pound steak, I must announce a billfold containing ten \$20 bills has just been turned in. The person who lost it should form a double line 8:30 Monday morning at Room 3, Journalism Building.

Quite a few requests have been made about my writing this article, but I've done it, anyway. It establishes a true perspective for the dollar, and I rely upon every reader to misinterpret it.

* * *

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15. Inflation = a drop in the buck.

16. Land of the Free, Grave of the Home.

17. Nevada is getting so prosperous it has drive-in unemployment offices.

Replicas, Copies and Restrikes

By RUSSELL RULAU

Collectors, do you want a real rarity? In this year of 1962 you may not have to go through the pain of waiting for one to come on the market so that you can purchase it like your forebears in the game of numismatics had to. Chances are that, if the item in question is really scarce, some enterprising soul will produce it for you under the guise of being a "restrike," "replica," "copy," "electro," "cast," "struck copy," or some other name (the word "forgery" is seldom used in this regard, so you'll have to watch for a more innocuous synonym—perhaps one that hasn't even been invented yet).

Another thing, collectors, don't feel that your particular specialty is being overlooked. The purveyors of replicas are quite broad-minded and are extending their activities to include all fields of numismatics. Even crown collectors are now fortunate enough to be able to purchase restrikes of the 1486 Austrian Dickthaler. Colonial collectors are afforded the opportunity of adding a replica Brasher Doubloon (in a suitable range of metals to suit their individual tastes). Collectors of Civil War items may purchase restrikes of Lovett's Confederate Cent, again in a suitable range of metallic content.

For the discriminating so-called dollar collector, we have "restrikes" of the "copy" by Dickeson of the Continental Dollar of 1776. An entire range of facsimiles of Confederate, Southern States and Broken Bank currency notes are available to the serious note collector, many of them, unmarred by the offending word "copy" any place on their beautiful sides.

For educational purposes, an entire series of replicas of merchant cards, political tokens and rare medals is available. This market is even becoming competitive to the point where a number of different companies are offering roughly similar items from a certain Eastern city.

Do you collect Mexicana? Here indeed you are fortunate, because the range of cast copies, struck copies and other copies is broadening deeply so that all types of coins, otherwise unobtainable, are coming your way. In their zeal to offer you cob and pillar copies, the makers are even supplying you dates and mintmarks which never existed in the original state. The same holds true generally for the collectors of Spanish-American colonies.

The collectors of United States gold are not being overlooked either. A wide selection of California gold souvenir tokens is available for your purchase.

Do you collect freak and odd regular-issue U. S. coins? More varieties are coming on the market every day. The United States Mint, however, is somewhat uncooperative in recognizing altered dates, added mintmarks, gold-plated nickels and such other oddities, but your benefactors in the trade of producing these items are not nearly so conservative. Should your pocketbook desire an item (and it doesn't exist), it will be made to exist for you; and should it merely be in short supply, that too can be corrected quickly.

The days of dealing in rolls and proof sets may be numbered, fellow collectors, but your readiness to purchase replicas is being generally recognized and this may change the whole course of numismatics in the United States. Your satisfaction in

pride of possession is being eagerly catered to and I feel quite sure American ingenuity will provide for your every wish. After all, why should you bother to hunt for the rare items any more? The coin market just cannot wait any longer for collectors to die so that their collections may come on the market; it is being anticipated and provided for NOW, while your prosperity is high and your demands avid.

It is true that a few stick-in-the-mud coin clubs and societies and some brash individual collectors are speaking out against this sort of thing, but don't for a minute let this deter you from buying whatever you wish. There will always be some minority which tries to spoil your fun and someone else's profit. Some of the numismatic clubs which have spoken out against replicas are really just stodgy bodies out of touch with reality in today's spontaneous numismatic market.

These bodies fail to realize that numismatics is changing and want the hobby to stay the clean, wholesome and competitive challenge it has always been. They reckon without you, the collector, who makes it possible for replica-producers to survive. They really shouldn't do that; it doesn't seem democratic.

However, in fairness to the reader, I must admit that my own sympathies lie with these bodies who want numismatics to stay the way it has been. I cannot seem to get pleasure out of my next-door neighbor proudly showing me the replica he just purchased in uncirculated condition of an original (in much shabbier state of preservation) in my collection. I'll have to admit I still shudder a bit when said next-door neighbor states, "Now I've got one too!"

It's also a bit jarring to see a replica (unmarked of course) of a Pillar Dollar come up for auction in the neighborhood coin club and being offered as an original. But then, if neither seller, buyer, auctioneer nor club management object, why should I?

It would be interesting to hear your views on this subject, fellow collectors.

THE CANADIAN MINING INDUSTRY

The natural resources of any country are of basic importance to its economic development. Their kind, amount and the way in which they are exploited and used are among the most important factors determining the rate of economic growth and the country's standard of living.

Canada, the second largest country in the world, is richly endowed with natural resources. Its mineral wealth is immense, and it is a major world supplier of many metals. Modern Canadian mining is the result of 350 years of developing and goes back to the days of the early explorer Samuel de Champlain, who discovered copper and silver deposits in the land of New France. Canada now leads the free world in the production of nickel, asbestos, platinum and zinc; is second in uranium, gold, cadmium, gypsum and titanium; and third in lead, magnesium, cobalt and bismuth. Canada also ranks high among world producers of copper, iron ore, silver and several other metals.

Although the first discovery was made early in the 17th century, the first major use of Canadian ores did not take place until the 1730s. The French settlers then began to use iron deposits for the making of household utensils, ploughshares and cannon balls. This was the limit of mining activity which extended for more than another century. Conditions did not call for, nor make possible, any large scale utilization of Canada's mineral heritage until the early 1840s when the first attempt was made to put Canadian mining on an organized basis and a systematic study resulted in the speedy and economical development of its mineral resources.

The 1850s and 1860s witnessed the British Columbia gold strike. When interest in the great California gold rush of 1849 began to wane the miners moved north to Canada, where they soon found new sources, and worked their way up the Fraser and Thompson Rivers. From there they moved into the Cariboo country where gold was discovered on the Yukon River in 1869. The discovery of gold in the Klondike Valley aroused world-wide attention and thousands rushed to the Yukon. Although this mining

activity was short-lived, it led to the transcontinental railway-building program.

The extension of the Canadian Pacific Railway through Sudbury in 1883 led to the discovery of copper-nickel ores. Further developments soon followed with the discovery of gold at Porcupine in 1906 and Kirkland Lake in 1911-13. Many now well-known discoveries were also being made in other parts of the country and the mining of minerals began to be recognized as an important factor in Canadian development.

In the 1920s the introduction of the froth flotation process made possible the building of a viable Canadian base metal industry. The industry suffered heavily during the depression years of the 1930s. This period, however, did produce a renaissance in gold mining. The raising of the price to \$35 per fine ounce was followed by a substantial increase in activity within the industry. Production of gold continued to advance until 1941, when the effects of rising costs began to be felt. World War II provided a strong impetus to the base metal industries.

The 1950s opened with widespread concern over metal shortages. The heightened demands for many metals pushed prices upwards and stimulated world-wide search for new sources of supply. Canada became a leading producer of principal minerals and the over-all growth within the industry exceeded that of the economy. Exports enhanced the industry considerably and producers began to rely increasingly on domestic ores.

The mining industry entered the present decade with a record of notable achievements and growth. With the completion of the many major projects now under way further increases in almost every segment are assured. However, as several trends are evident within the industry, these can best be seen by examining the major metals individually.

NICKEL

Nickel is now Canada's second metal in terms of production value and supplies about four-fifths of world requirements. Last year world

demand exceeded 600 million pounds, with expectations to rise to about 800 million within the next few years. In the years immediately ahead there will be continual stress on market development and research.

COPPER

In 1964 copper producers enjoyed a year of very high demand. Both domestic and world consumption have been running at about ten per cent above 1963 levels.

IRON ORE

Iron ore has been the outstanding performer in the post-war years and is now the leading mineral in terms of production value. Shipments in 1964 exceeded 36 million tons, and Canada is now the world's leading iron ore exporter.

The Canadian iron ore industry depends heavily on the export market. Between 85 and 90 percent of production is currently being exported. Furthermore, although Canadian steel companies now consume more than eight million tons of ore a year, more than 60 percent of their requirements are imported. This situation is explained by the fact that Canadian steel companies invested in, or otherwise became associated with, iron ore mining companies in the United States prior to the establishment of the Canadian industry. It is becoming evident that, in the foreseeable future, iron ore producers will be dependent on the U.S. market for the major part of their sales.

SILVER

During the past few years silver mining has benefitted from the failure of world supply to meet world demand. The United States has been drawing on its considerable stockpile in order to maintain price stability. Last year supplies of silver held by the United States Treasury fell by 400 million ounces to 1.2 billion ounces. Outside the U.S. the use of the metal exceeded production by about 100 million ounces.

The silver situation is the result of a number of factors. Low base metal prices have retarded silver production since much of the world's silver is produced as a by-product of lead-zinc, copper-zinc, and nickel-copper ores. In Canada about 80 percent of output comes from these sources. Rising populations and the increase of vending machines have also contribu-

ted to the shortage of the metal. Industrial uses, particularly in the photographic and electronic industries, have been expanding. The building up of speculative positions and the carrying of bigger than usual stocks have accounted for a sizeable percentage of the high demand. Silver production in Canada is not expected to change in the immediate future, but the shortage has greatly stimulated exploration.

GOLD

Gold has been caught in the squeeze between a fixed price and rising costs of production. Over the past decade the number of producers has been shrinking steadily as they exhaust their reserves and costs of production continue to rise. Production from new sources is unlikely to offset the closure of mines reaching the end of their reserves. Despite its many problems gold mining remains an important segment of the Canadian mining industry.

The broad technical problems facing the mineral industry in any country may be divided into those of discovery, extraction, processing and use. In Canada to these may be added the recurring and increasing problems of having to move into relatively more inaccessible areas in order to obtain new ore supplies.

New techniques for locating ore bodies of sufficient concentration and size to permit profitable mining must constantly be developed. In 1957 the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects came to the following conclusion—"To ensure the continued growth and prosperity of the mineral industry, Canada must retain her lead in technology among other nations of the world . . . If we are to maintain our present position we must foster research, both fundamental and applied, that will keep Canada in the forefront in the development of . . . techniques for finding the deposits and in the development of improved metallurgical processes for the recovery of the valuable materials they contain."

Competition of the most vigorous character is always present in the development of markets for metals. It embraces the competition between a specific metal and one or more other metals, between metals and non-metallic materials, and even between producers of the same material. In-

creasingly, metal producers around the world are turning to vertical integration as an aid in selling their products. Markets for Canada's metal industry may be expected to grow.

With regard to the future, the policy of the United States, the largest single market for Canadian minerals, is of particular importance particularly with respect to tariffs, quotas and stockpile disposals. However, substantial levels of world consumption for the products of the mining industry are in prospect. The rising

standard of living in Europe, the massive push for economic development in the emerging nations, and the expanding population in North America, are all favorable factors. With a heavy and sustained program of exploration and development, the mining industry can be confident of maintaining its position as a dynamic force in the Canadian economy.

(Editor's Note:—Condensed by Dennis Olswang from an article appearing in the January 1965 issue of "Commercial Letter", official publication of the Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce.)



Editor's Page

I hope this book has opened some new vistas of insight, some new avenues of collecting interests and perhaps a very sincere invitation to each of you to join our association, if not in person, then in spirit to further the knowledge and friendship of our hobby.

This book has been a two year labor of love for your editor; it has allowed me to re-introduce through their writings, many collectors, numismatists, and friends who have now passed from the scene . . . but are still with us through the knowledge they shared with us. We hope that this will be only the first volume of fine articles reprinted from our Calcoin publication and in the years to come we can continue to share our hobby with you.

Special thanks and recognition are given to Charles Kappen, whose many years as editor, officer, past president and dedicated numismatist made this project a reality.

Appreciation is also extended to Wiley and Jean Westerfield who gave freely their time and knowledge in producing this book.

My personal thanks are expressed to the many members of The Society For International Numismatics and The Numismatic Literary Guild who assisted in various phases of this publication.

Numismatically,

James L. Betton
Fellow of The Royal Numismatic Society
Society For International Numismatics
Numismatic Literary Guild

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